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Decreasing COVID-19 In-Hospital Mortality – Lessons from the Pandemic

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Decreasing COVID-19 In-Hospital Mortality – Lessons from the Pandemic

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Abstract

Introduction: COVID-19 first struck New York City in the spring of 2020 resulting in an unprecedented strain on our health care system triggering multiple changes in public health policy governing hospital operations as well as therapeutic approaches to COVID-19. We examined inpatient mortality at our center throughout the course of the pandemic.

Methods: Retrospective chart review of clinical characteristics, treatments, and outcome data of all patients admitted with COVID-19 from March 1st, 2020 to February 28th, 2021. Patients were grouped into three-month quartiles. Hospital strain was assessed as percent of occupied beds based on a normal bed capacity of 1,491.

Results: Inpatient mortality decreased from 25.0% in spring to 10.8% over the course of the year. During this time, the use of remdesivir, steroids, and anticoagulants increased; the use of hydroxychloroquine and other antibiotics decreased. Daily bed occupation ranged from 62% to 118% and COVID-19 mortality increased by 0.7% per 1% increase in bed occupation (HR 1.007, CI: 1.001, 1.013, p=0.004). In a multivariate model with demographics, comorbidities, acuity of illness, and bed occupation inpatient mortality during the second surge remained significantly lower than during the initial surge (HR 0.520, CI 0.448-0.604, p<0.001). Propensity score analysis confirmed this finding (HR 0.580 CI: 0.507-0.663, p<0.001).

Conclusion: Inpatient mortality from COVID-19 decreased to a degree disproportionate to advances in disease specific therapeutics and was associated with bed occupation. Early reduction in epicenter hospital bed occupation to accommodate acutely ill and resource-intensive patients should be a critical component in the strategic planning for future pandemics.

Strengths and limitations of this study

- Large cohort study (7,390 COVID-19 patients).
- Longitudinal analysis over 1 year of management and hospital police changes.
- Analysis of mortality changes after adjustment for different therapies and clinical parameters.
- Identification of the association between level of hospital system stress and mortality, with important public health ramifications.
- Limitation: data on most recent variants are not included

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Key questions:

What is already known? COVID-19 treatment and mortality changed over one year. Was the percentage of hospital bed occupation associated with in-patient mortality?

What are the new findings? In this retrospective cohort study of 7,390 COVID-19 patients admitted to our institution over a 12-month period, we found that inpatient mortality due to COVID-19 decreased to a degree disproportionate to advances in disease specific therapies. Additionally, inpatient mortality due to COVID-19 was associated with the percentage of hospital bed occupation.

What do the new findings imply? We provide important insights into the temporal changes in COVID-19 prognosis and for the first time identify hospital stress – measured as the percentage of bed occupation – as a parameter independently associated with COVID-19 mortality. Early reductions in epicenter hospital bed occupation to accommodate acutely ill and resource-intensive patients should be critical considerations in the strategic planning for future pandemics.

INTRODUCTION

Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19 was declared a global pandemic by the World Health Organization on March 11th, 2020.¹ In the United States, after a cluster of cases reported from Washington state², New York state quickly became the initial epicenter of this pandemic with over 1.27 million of cases till date and over 50,000 fatalities with the highest concentration in the Bronx and Queens boroughs of New York City, ³ Montefiore Einstein, with its three principal teaching hospitals and combined adult bed capacity of 1,491, is the primary health care provider for the large, nearly 1.5 million diverse population of the Bronx⁴ and experienced a "first wave" of COVID-19 admissions in the spring of 2020³, followed by a significant reduction of cases until a second surge in hospitalizations was noted in the winter of 2020. Throughout the course of the year, multiple public health measures - including those adapting hospital operation to a disaster level pandemic, such as cancellation of all elective procedures and waiver of state specific licensing for health care providers - were put in place. In addition, the understanding of COVID-19 pathophysiology improved ⁵⁶, new treatments were developed ⁷⁻¹⁰, parts of the general population^{11 12} as well as hospital personnel developed antibodies after COVID-19 illness ¹³, and our hospital system adapted to and then recovered from crisis mode.¹⁴ Here, we report outcomes of patients hospitalized with COVID-19 through one year since the first case, focusing on the differences observed between the spring and the winter surges.

METHODS:

Study Population

We retrospectively reviewed all adult patients admitted to Montefiore Medical Center with a real time reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) assay positive for COVID-19

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between March 1, 2020 and February 28, 2021. We divided this timeframe in four 3-month seasons: spring (March 1, 2020 to May 31, 2020), summer (June 1, 2020 to August 30, 2020), fall (September 1, 2020 to November 30, 2020), and winter (December 1, 2020 to February 28, 2021).

Data Collection

Medical data including demographic, clinical, and laboratory variables were extracted from the electronic medical record system. The primary outcome was 30-day in-hospital mortality.

Statistical Analysis

Continuous variables are displayed as mean ± standard deviation or median [25-75% interquartile range] and compared with the Student's t-test, or Wilcoxon ranks-sum, as appropriate. Categorical data are presented as percent and compared by the chi-squared test. We estimated the cumulative incidence of the primary endpoint in-hospital mortality for each season, treating hospital discharge as a competing event.¹⁵ To avoid any bias due to differential follow-up length, we censored the follow-up time at 30 days after the admission.

A multivariable competing risk proportional hazard models was used to estimate the subdistribution hazard ratios^{16 17} for time to in-hospital death. Selection method for covariates is presented in the Supplemental Material.

Then we focused on examining the difference in in-hospital death between patients admitted in the spring and in the winter, as they represented the two largest and most temporal distant waves of the COVID-19 pandemic occurring before and after pandemic specific therapeutic hospital

logistic changes had been implemented. Selection method for covariates is presented in the Supplemental Material.

The proportionality assumption was examined 18 and no violation was identified. A two-sided p<0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Propensity Score Analysis

To fully control the potential differences in patient population and hospital stress between spring and winter COVID-19 patients, we also used propensity score (PS) matching to compare the 30day in-hospital mortality between spring and winter admissions. The same covariates used for the multivariable competing risk regression were used for PS matching. PS matching was carried out through a 1:1 greedy matching algorithm, with a caliper width of 0.1 SD. We then stratified on matched pair in the competing risk regression model.^{19 20} Because one-to-one matching led to a reduction in sample size, we used this analysis as a sensitivity analysis. All statistical analyses was performed with SPSS (IBM Corp, ver. 25, Armonk, NY) and the R packages cmprsk and crrSC (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, ver 3.5)

Patient and Public Involvement

Given the retrospective nature of our analysis, it was not appropriate or possible to involve patients or the public in the design, or conduct, or reporting, or dissemination plans of our research.

RESULTS

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7,390 COVID-19 positive adult patients were admitted between March 1, 2020 and February 28, 2021 (Figure 1). 4,495 patients were admitted during the spring, 264 during the summer, 377 during the fall, and 2,254 during the winter.

On April 8, 2020, peak of the spring season, the total numbers of simultaneously adult patients admitted to our hospital (including those admitted to emergency adult wards at our children's hospital²¹) was 1,762 (118% of nominal bed capacity); 1,201 of them (68.2%) were COVID-19 patients. On February 8, 2021, peak of winter season, 1,512 patients (101% of nominal bed capacity) were admitted to our hospital and 393 of them (26.0%) were COVID-19 patients. (Figure 1). Following cancellation of elective procedures, bed occupation decreased to 70% by the end of the spring season and remained at 90% until the beginning of the winter season, when the second wave occurred in December 2020. Unadjusted mortality for patient admitted at the beginning of spring, end of spring, beginning of winter, and end of winter was 28%, 8%, 14%, ie4 and 13%, respectively (Figure 2).

Patient Population

Demographics, past medical history, vital signs at arrivals, and initial laboratory blood tests are presented in Table 1. Overall, median age was 66(55 - 77) years, 3,835(51.9%) patients were male, 5,519 (74.2%) were of Black race and/or Hispanic ethnicity. Median age ranged from 63 years (fall) to 67 years (spring). Sex distribution was similar throughout the year. Summer and fall patients had the lowest and the highest BMI: 26.7 and 28.6 kg/m², respectively.

Pharmacotherapy

Changes in pharmacological approach is presented in **Supplemental Table 1** and **Figure 3**

Spring patients were more likely to receive hydroxychloroquine, azithromycin and other antibiotics. The use of Remdesivir substantially increased throughout the year (from less than 2% during spring to almost 70% by the end of the winter). Steroids prescription (from 33% during spring to almost 70% in February 2021), therapeutic anticoagulation therapy, as well as use of statins, angiotensin converting inhibitors (ACE-I), or angiotensin receptor blockers (ARBs) also increased.

Death, Intubation, and Length of Stay

Over the course of a year, 1,437 (19.4%) died while hospitalized. Patients who died were older, had more comorbidities, and were more acutely ill consistent within prior reports on risk factors for death in COVID-19⁵⁶ (Supplemental Table 2). Average unadjusted monthly mortality is presented in Figure 2. 30-day in-hospital mortality (Figure 4A) was 25.0% for the spring patients, 11.0% for summer patients, 6.9% for fall patients, and 11.4% for winter patients (p < 0.001). On average, spring patients died 6.4 (3.2 - 12.9) days after the arrival to the emergency department, summer patients 7.2 (3.0 - 15.7) days after the arrival, fall patients 13.4 (8.7 - 21.6) days after arrival, and winter patients 13.3 (6.8 - 20.7) days after the arrival (p<0.001). Frequency of invasive ventilatory support was higher during the spring with 892 patients (19.4%) intubated, versus 27 (10.2%) in the summer, 36 (9.5%) during fall, and 268 (11.9%) in the winter, p<0.001. Median time from arrival-to-intubation was 0.7 (0.1 - 4.1) days for spring patients, 0.6 (0.1 - 8.1) days for summer patients, 2.2 (0.1 - 7.3) days for fall patients, and 2.8 (0.3 - 7.0) days for winter patients, p<0.001. Median length of stay was 6.1 (3.5 - 11.1) days during spring, 5.1 (2.7 - 10.1) days during summer, 5.0 (3.0 - 10.1) days during fall, and 6.3 (3.8 - 12.0) days during winter, p<0.001.

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Bed Saturation and Mortality

In the multivariable competing risk proportional hazard model of the entire cohort, percent of bed occupation was associated with increased 30-day in-hospital mortality (HR 1.007, CI: 1.001, 1.013, p=0.004); i.e mortality increase by 0.7 % for each 1% increase of bed occupation.

Spring vs Winter Mortality Comparison and Propensity Matched Analysis

In the multivariable competing risk proportional hazard model comparing spring and winter season, 30-day in-hospital mortality was lower in winter (HR 0.520, CI 0.448-0.604, p<0.001) when compared to spring. After PS caliper matching, there were 1,722 matched pairs. Spring and winter patients had similar distribution of PS (**Supplemental Figure 1**) and standardized average difference among covariates was greatly reduced. PS analysis showed a significant reduction of in-hospital mortality during winter (HR 0.580 CI: 0.507-0.663, p<0.001) confirming what we observed in the multivariable adjusted analysis (**Figure 4B**).

DISCUSSION

We examined inpatient mortality from COVID-19 over the course of a one-year pandemic at our hospital system in New York City. Our principal findings are as follows: First, we observed a substantial reduction of in-house mortality coinciding with multiple pandemic related public health measures focusing on hospital resources on COVID-19 – and preceding comprehensive changes in pharmacotherapy - towards the end of the first surge. Second, we describe - for the first time - hospital bed occupation as an independent risk factor for inpatient mortality from COVID-19.

Public Health Measures in Response to COVID-19

After declaring a state of disaster emergency (March 7, 2020), New York State introduced different measures to limit the spread of the disease, including public schools closure (March 16, 2020), limitation of indoor dining (March 17, 2020), stay-home order for non-essential workers (March 22, 2020), mandatory face coverings in public (April 15, 2020), and night subway closure (April 30, 2020)²². Despite these measures to limit the diffusion of the disease and a generalized reduction of movements around New York City (as evidenced by a more than 90% reduction of subway ridership compared to 2019)²³, more than 30% of Bronx residents were found to have positive antibodies (and thus possibly temporary immunity) against SARS-CoV-2 in August 2020.²⁴

Specifically relevant to hospital operations, executive order no. 202.5 (March 16, 2020)²⁵ allowed healthcare providers not licensed or registered in New York State to temporarily work in the State, and executive order no. 202.10 (March 22, 2020)²⁵ suspended elective operations. These executive orders were associated with a dramatic drop in non-COVID-19 admissions at our institution beginning March 16, 2020. (**Figure 1**). On March 26, 2020 New York State Governor Cuomo additionally mandated all hospitals to increase their bed capacity by 50% to accommodate the surge of COVID-19 patients.²⁵ Despite this order, the actual bed occupation at our institution (while accommodating all COVID-19 patients presenting to our hospitals) remained below the usual operating capacity until December 2020.

Notably, COVID-19 mortality remained stable throughout the summer and fall 2020 with low case counts and increased utilization of steroids, anticoagulation, and remdesivir. Although randomized controlled trials have shown morbidity benefits with the use of remdesevir⁷ and

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mortality reduction with steroids⁸, the magnitude of these effects cannot explain the more than 50% reduction in mortality we observed. Furthermore, pharmacotherapy, with the exception of hydroxychloroquine elimination, did not materially change within the spring season, by the end of which mortality was already decreased. Steroid, remdesivir, and therapeutic anticoagulation were used in 10-20% of patients by May 2020, but they reached 30-70% only in the winter season. Despite that, unadjusted mortality began to increase again in December 2020 during the second wave. Of note, bed occupation also increased at that time and proved to be an independent risk factor for COVID-19 mortality in our cohort of nearly 8,000 patients.

Change in Therapeutic Approach

The initial widespread (>2/3 of first spring patients) use of hydroxychloroquine, an agent eventually proven to be ineffective²⁶ to treat COVID-19, probably represents the most obvious pandemic-associated deviation from the usual multiphase clinical trial standards of therapeutic paradigm development. Only 8 of 2,254 patients received hydroxychloroquine during the winter wave. To a similar extend, we observed a reduction in the use of azithromycin and other antibiotics, the latter possibly reflecting a more careful assessment of the need to treat superimposed bacterial infections during the second wave. Steroid therapy^{8 27} and therapeutic anticoagulation⁹ were implemented in the majority of patients during the winter after the knowledge on the likely disease modulating inflammatory proprieties and pro-thrombotic effect of COVID-19 had been recognized²⁸ and, in the case of steroids, a therapeutic effect had been proven⁸. Remdesivir, an inhibitor of the viral RNA-dependent RNA polymerase that showed shortening of recovery time in hospitalized patients with COVID-19⁷, received emergency FDA approval on October 22nd,2020 ²⁹ and was administered to almost half of the admitted patients

during the winter. If initial concerns of possible interactions between ACE-I or ARBs and SARS-CoV-2 ³⁰ led to a possible underutilization or discontinuation of these drugs during the spring, we observed a significant increase in their use during the following months, after no increased risks were reported. ^{31 32}

Similarly, after several reports showed a possible protective effect associated with the use of statins^{33 34}, their utilization markedly increased during the winter.

Lastly, after the spring wave provided anecdotal evidence for early proning in COVID-19 pneumonia, an approach strongly favoring noninvasive ventilation and avoiding intubation was developed to address respiratory distress in COVID-19; more data about such an approach has since accumulated. ^{10 35}

Change in Hospital Stress Load

At the peak of the pandemic, the hospital saturation reached the 118% of the nominal bed capacity and COVID-19 patients accounted for 68.2% of all admitted patients. This increase in acutely ill patients created significant excess demand on the rest of the hospital infrastructure best characterized by the surge in the need for intensive care unit (ICU) beds and transformation of other hospital areas to ICUs.^{14,21} Despite increased patient load, the number of standard ICU beds, as well as laboratories, diagnostic equipment, and available personnel, remained the same as before the pandemic. This unmatched patient overload resulted in a 0.7 % mortality increase for each 1% increment in hospital bed saturation.

Limitations

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Our study has the shortcomings of a retrospective investigation, but there are some very specific aspects limiting the interpretation of our results. First, it is difficult to assess the true effects of pharmacotherapy given the dynamic changes in indications, doses, and usage that happened over the course of the year. Regardless, we believe the propensity-matched comparison between the spring and the winter waves provides compelling evidence for the validity of our principal observation of inpatient COVID-19 mortality reduction disproportionate to advances in pharmacotherapy. We chose total bed occupation as a metric for hospital stress assuming that other resources per bed remained static. Notably, the ratio of COVID-19 to non-COVID-19 patients, ICU bed saturation, and staff shortages are unaccounted for in this model. Regrettably, an in-depth analysis of these metrics is beyond our ability in this retrospective pandemic analysis with disaster elements. Additionally, a significant number of patients received ICU-level-of-care interventions (mechanical ventilatory support, dialysis, vasopressors titration) on regular floors; therefore, the concept of ICU bed saturation might have been not truly representative of the burden.

However, we feel our data is sufficiently strong to support the notion that bed capacity expansion alone is not the answer. Rather, a smaller number of beds with higher staffing accomplished by drastic reductions in all non-emergent procedures and activities is likely a better approach. Although offering fewer beds in pandemic situation appears initially quite counterintuitive, in practice we observed that mortality began to decrease once beds and resources were allocated specifically to COVID-19 patients by executive orders 202.5 and 202.10; and most importantly that bed occupation never exceeded 100% once hospital operations focused on the COVID-19 pandemic only. Lastly, it is conceivable that an uptrend in mortality observed late in the pandemic with established treatment paradigms could be due to new viral strains or a sicker

patient population. Although we are unable to provide detailed strain analysis for our study population, a meaningful numbers of new (and possibly more virulent) strains were not yet observed in in the Bronx, where our study was conducted.³⁶ The small sample size of patients in summer and fall does not allow meaningful propensity matched comparisons, and when comparing summer, fall, and winter populations, there do not appear to be clinically meaningful differences.

CONCLUSIONS

Inpatient mortality from COVID-19 decreased to a degree disproportionate to advances in disease specific therapeutics and was associated with bed occupation. Early reduction in epicenter hospital bed occupation to accommodate acutely ill and resource-intensive patients should be a critical component in the strategic planning for future pandemics.

DECLARATIONS

Ethics approval and consent to participate

The Office of Human Research Affairs at Albert Einstein College of Medicine approved this study (# 2020-11308). Patient consent and HIPAA forms were waived by our IRB due to the retrospective nature of our research.

Consent for publication

Non applicable.

Availability of data and materials

The datasets used and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding Clicz Cz author on reasonable request.

Competing interests

No conflicts of interest exist.

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Author's Contributions

Design of the project: FC, XX, and UPJ.

Underlying data verified by FC, XX, and UPJ.

Acquisition, analysis, and interpretation of data: FC, XX, OM, RK, YAP, SRP, MJC, ADR, DS, and UPJ.

Statistical analysis: FC and XX.

Obtained funding: UPJ

Manuscript writing: FC, XX, and UPJ.

Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content: FC, XX, OM, RK, YAP, SRP, MJC, ADR, DS, and UPJ.

Supervision: UPJ

All the Authors reviewed the work and approved the final version.

FC and UPJ had full access to all the data in the study and take responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

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	Spr	ring (n=4495)	Sum	mer (n=264)	Fa	ull (n=377)	Win	nter (n=2254)
	Sample	Value	Sample	Value	Sample	Value	Sample	Value
Demographics						•	-	
Age (IQR) - yr	4495	66 (55 - 77)	264	66 (50 - 76)	377	63 (50 - 73)	2254	67 (56 - 77)
Male sex - no (%)	4495	2377 (52.9)	264	138 (52.3)	377	198 (52.5)	2254	1122 (49.8)
Black race and / or Hispanic ethnicity – no (%)	4495	3345 (74.4)	264	219 (83.0)	377	286 (75.9)	2254	1635 (74.2)
Body Mass Index (IQR) - kg/m ²	4229	28.4 (24.6 - 33)	250	27.6 (22.5 - 32.7)	358	28.6 (25 - 34.1)	2194	28.2 (24.4 - 33.1)
Hospital bed saturation (IQR) - %	4495	97.4 (86.5 – 107.6)	264	81.7 (76.3 - 85.8)	377	87.6 (83.2 - 90.2)	2254	95.3 (91.9 – 101.8)
Past Medical History	T			6				
Hypertension - no (%)	4495	3370 (75)	264	197 (74.6)	377	254 (67.4)	2254	1713 (76)
Sleep apnea - no (%)	4495	521 (11.6)	264	28 (10.6)	377	47 (12.5)	2254	270 (12)
Hyperlipidemia - no (%)	4495	2609 (58)	264	153 (58)	377	199 (52.8)	2254	1380 (61.2)
Atrial fibrillation - no (%)	4495	449 (10)	264	30 (11.4)	377	35 (9.3)	2254	267 (11.8)
Chronic kidney disease - no (%)	4495	1406 (31.3)	264	70 (26.5)	377	85 (22.5)	2254	620 (27.5)
Heart failure - no (%)	4495	980 (21.8)	264	72 (27.3)	377	66 (17.5)	2254	519 (23)
Coronary artery disease - no (%)	4495	1316 (29.3)	264	95 (36)	377	108 (28.6)	2254	721 (32)
Asthma/COPD - no (%)	4495	1371 (30.5)	264	84 (31.8)	377	98 (26)	2254	753 (33.4)
Diabetes mellitus -	4495	2522 (56.1)	264	148 (56.1)	377	187 (49.6)	2254	1244 (55.2)

Table 1. Demographics, Past Medical History, and Clinical Characteristics of Admitted Patients

Vitals at Presentation

Temperature (IQR) - F	4463	98.9 (98.2 - 100)	264	98.4 (97.8 - 98.9)	372	98.8 (98.1 - 99.9)	2254	98.7 (98.1 - 99.8)
SBP (IQR) - mmHg	4469	131 (114 - 148)	264	132 (117 - 149)	375	131 (117 - 147)	2254	132 (117 - 148)
DBP (IQR) - mmHg	4465	75 (65 - 84)	263	77 (67 - 87)	374	74 (68 - 84)	2252	75 (67 - 84)
HR (IQR) – bpm	4467	98 (85 - 112)	264	92.5 (76.3 - 105)	372	94 (80 - 107)	2253	95 (82 - 107)
Oxygen saturation (IQR) - %	4463	95 (91 - 98)	264	98 (96 - 99)	372	96 (94 - 98)	2253	96 (92 - 98)
Respiratory Rate (IQR) - bpm	4466	20 (18 - 22)	264	18 (17 - 20)	372	18 (18 - 20)	2254	19 (18 - 22)
Laboratory Markers		$\mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{C}}$)					
Hemoglobin (IQR) - g/dL	4372	12.8 (11.2 - 14.1)	261	12.4 (10.7 - 13.9)	370	13 (11.6 - 14.3)	2228	12.9 (11.5 - 14.2)
Platelet count (IQR) -k/μL	4372	188 (116 - 260)	261	228 (169 - 300)	372	200 (144 - 257)	2228	196 (143 - 259)
White blood cell count (IQR) - k/µL	4372	7.5 (5.6 - 10.6)	261	8 (5.8 - 11)	370	6.6 (5.1 - 8.9)	2228	6.4 (4.7 - 8.8)
Absolute lymphocyte count (IQR) - k/μL	4420	1 (0.7 - 1.4)	263	1.2 (0.9 - 1.8)	374	1.1 (0.8 - 1.5)	2246	1 (0.7 - 1.4)
Sodium (IQR) – mEq/L	4414	137 (134 - 141)	263	138 (135 - 141)	377	137 (135 - 140)	2253	137 (134 - 140)
Potassium (IQR) – mEq/L	4389	4.3 (3.9 - 4.8)	262	4.2 (3.8 - 4.6)	377	4 (3.8 - 4.4)	2243	4.1 (3.8 - 4.5)
Chloride (IQR) – mEq/L	4394	98 (95 - 103)	263	103 (100 - 105)	377	101 (99 - 104)	2253	101 (98 - 104)
Bicarbonates (IQR) – mEq/L	4414	24 (20 - 26)	263	24 (21 - 27)	377	25 (22 - 27)	2253	24 (21 - 27)
Creatinine (IQR) - mg/dL	4410	1.1 (0.8 - 2)	263	1 (0.8 - 1.5)	377	1 (0.8 - 1.3)	2253	1.1 (0.8 - 1.5)
Glucose (IQR) - mg/dL	4414	134 (108 - 197)	263	121 (100 - 171)	377	122 (102 - 173)	2253	126 (104 - 184)

Aspartate aminotransferase (IQR) - U/L	4045	40 (27 - 65)	245	26 (20 - 38)	354	31 (21 - 47)	2084	35 (24 - 55)
Alanine aminotransferase (IQR) - U/L	4206	27 (17 - 44)	252	21 (14 - 32)	361	25 (16 - 41)	2171	26 (17 - 44)
Lactic acid (IQR) – mmol/L	3981	2.1 (1.6 - 3)	220	1.9 (1.4 - 2.7)	330	1.8 (1.3 - 2.5)	1913	1.9 (1.4 - 2.5)
Lactate dehydrogenase (IQR) - mmol/L	2935	384 (285 - 535)	160	254.5 (196 - 340)	285	300 (225 - 383)	1563	341 (254 - 468)
Creatine Kinase (IQR) – U/L	3453	168 (83 - 401)	209	97 (57 - 176)	313	116 (60 - 213)	1957	126 (67 - 282)
D-dimer (IQR) - μg/mL	2204	1.8 (0.9 - 3.9)	185	1.1 (0.5 - 2.2)	317	0.8 (0.5 - 1.6)	1907	1.2 (0.7 - 2.3)
Procalcitonin (IQR) – ng/mL	1789	0.2 (0.1 - 0.9)	120	0.1 (0.1 - 0.4)	254	0.1 (0.1 - 0.2)	1252	0.1 (0.1 - 0.3)
Troponin T* (IQR) - ng/mL	0	NA	219	0.01 (0.01 - 0.03)	342	0.01 (0.01 - 0.02)	2106	0.01 (0.01 - 0.03)
Troponin I* (IQR) – ng/mL	3662	0.01 (0.01 - 0.03)	3	0.01 (0.01 - 0.01)	0	NA	0	NA
Interleukin-6 (IQR) – pg/mL	1056	33.6 (13.8 - 75.2)	87	11.7 (3 - 43.1)	186	11 (4.7 - 22.2)	710	10.8 (4.3 - 25.6)
Fibrinogen (IQR) – mg/dL	1552	624 (491 - 750)	122	448 (370- 583)	224	540 (436 - 663)	1040	535.5 (434 - 652)
Ferritin (IQR) – ng/mL	1969	716 (335 - 1498)	155	228 (90 - 562)	293	364 (166 - 785)	1637	510 (230 - 1094)

COPD = Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; DBP = Diastolic blood pressure; HR = Heart rate; IQR = Interquartile range; SBP =

Systolic blood pressure. * Troponin T was available only until June 2020, Troponin I was available only after June 2020.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Simultaneously Admitted Patients

This graph includes the hospitalized patients and the admitted patients in the emergency

department waiting for a bed. A precipitous decline of non-COVID-19 admissions begins on

March 16, 2020 (vertical gray line) coinciding with gubernatorial health care associated

directives in the State of New York. The dotted red line indicates the nominal bed capacity of our

institution (1,491 beds).

Figure 2. Cumulative Monthly Admission and Mortality

Cumulative monthly admissions (blue line, left axis) and mortality (orange line, right axis) over the year.

Figure 3. Change in Therapies

Percent of patients receiving specific therapies over the year. Lezoni

Figure 4. Cumulative Incidences

30-day in-hospital mortality by seasons.





170x124mm (150 x 150 DPI)



185x153mm (150 x 150 DPI)



200x177mm (150 x 150 DPI)



Supplemental Appendix

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Supplemental Methods

 Covariate Selection Method for Multivariable Competing Risk Proportional Hazard Models for Time to In-hospital Death

The covariates in the multivariable analyses included factors present in > 90% of our dataset, known to be associated with in-hospital COVID-19 mortality based on prior literature¹⁻³, or with a univariate association with in-hospital mortality (p<0.05) and a clinical (relative difference >5%) difference between survivors and non survivors (**Supplemental Table 2**). These variables included: age, sex, body mass index (BMI), vital signs at presentation (temperature, systolic and diastolic blood pressure, heart rate, respiratory rate, pulse oxygen saturation), platelet count, white cell count, potassium, bicarbonate, creatinine, glucose, alanine transaminase, aspartate transaminase, history of hypertension, dyslipidemia, chronic kidney disease (CKD), heart failure, coronary artery disease, asthma/chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, diabetes mellitus and statin use. Additionally, lactic acid level and percent of hospital bed saturation were forced into the model as marker of illness severity and level of hospital stress, respectively.

Covariate Selection Method for Multivariable Competing Risk Proportional Hazard Models for in-hospital Death between Patients Spring and Winter Patients

The covariates in the multivariable analyses included factors present in > 90% of our dataset, are known to be associated with in-hospital COVID-19 mortality based on prior literature or with a univariate association between admission season (exposure) or in-hospital mortality (outcome) (p<0.05) and a clinical (relative difference >5%) difference between the spring and winter patients (**Supplemental Table 3**). These variables included: age, sex, BMI, vital signs at

presentation, white cell count, creatinine, glucose, alanine transaminase, history of hypertension, dyslipidemia, chronic kidney disease (CKD), heart failure, coronary artery disease, asthma/chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, diabetes mellitus and statin use. Also in this model, lactic acid level and percent of hospital bed saturation were forced into the model as marker of illness severity and level of hospital stress, respectively.

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DBP			••••		
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AST = aspartate transaminase; BMI= body mass index; CAD= coronary artery disease; COPD = chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; CKD = chronic kidney disease; DBP= diastolic blood pressure; DM = Diabetes mellitus; HF= heart failure; HLD = hyperlipidemia; HNT = hypertension; HR = heart rate; SBP = systolic blood pressure; WBC = white blood cell count
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	Spring (n=4495)	Summer (n=264)	Fall (n=377)	Winter (n=2254)
Hydroxychloroquine - no (%)	3007 (66.9)	1 (0.4)	2 (0.5)	8 (0.4)
Azithromycin - no (%)	1322 (29.4)	51 (19.3)	118 (31.3)	374 (16.6)
Other antibiotics - no (%)	3382 (75.2)	160 (60.6)	214 (56.8)	1082 (48)
Steroids - no (%)	1485 (33)	71 (26.9)	195 (51.7)	1462 (64.9)
Angiotensin-converting- enzyme Inhibitors - no (%)	318 (7.1)	36 (13.6)	51 (13.5)	269 (11.9)
Angiotensin II receptor blockers - no (%)	264 (5.9)	23 (8.7)	32 (8.5)	212 (9.4)
Statin - no (%)	1478 (32.9)	109 (41.3)	129 (34.2)	1002 (44.5)
Therapeutic anticoagulation - no (%)	1041/4496 (31.2)	76 (28.8)	98 (26.0)	772 (34.3)
Remdesivir* - no (%)	78 (1.7)	37 (14)	134 (35.5)	1224 (54.3)
Lopinavir/Ritonavir – no (%)	40 (0.9)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Ivermectin – no (%)	11 (0.2)	1 (0.4)	0 (0)	34 (1.5)

Supplemental Table 1 - Therapies Administered during the Admission

* 45 patients listed as remdesivir recipients in the spring season were part of a 1:1 double-blind, placebo-controlled study. Instead, all the patients in summer, fall, and winter seasons listed as remdesivir recipients received the actual medication.

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	Survio	rs (n=5953)	Nonsurvio	p-value	
	Sample	Value	Sample	Value	
Demographics					
Age (IQR) - yr	5953	64 (52 - 75)	1437	73 (65 - 82)	< 0.001
Male sex - no (%)	5953	2989 (50.2)	1437	846 (58.9)	< 0.001
Black race and / or Hispanic ethnicity – no (%)	5953	4472 (75.1)	1437	1013 (70.5)	< 0.001
Body Mass Index (IQR) - kg/m ²	5679	28.4 (24.6 - 33.2)	1352	27.9 (23.8 - 32.6)	< 0.001
Hospital bed saturation (IQR) - %	5953	94.1 (86.5 - 104.8)	1437	99.3 (87.5 - 107.6)	< 0.001
Past Medical History		ò			
Hypertension - no (%)	5953	4365 (73.3)	1437	1169 (81.4)	< 0.001
Sleep apnea - no (%)	5953	688 (11.6)	1437	178 (12.4)	0.38
Hyperlipidemia - no (%)	5953	3366 (56.5)	1437	975 (67.8)	< 0.001
Atrial fibrillation - no (%)	5953	557 (9.4)	1437	224 (15.6)	< 0.001
Chronic kidney disease - no (%)	5953	1559 (26.2)	1437	622 (43.3)	< 0.001
Heart failure - no (%)	5953	1181 (19.8)	1437	456 (31.7)	< 0.001
Coronary artery disease - no (%)	5953	1653 (27.8)	1437	587 (40.8)	< 0.001
Asthma/COPD - no (%)	5953	1842 (30.9)	1437	464 (32.3)	0.32
Diabetes mellitus - no (%)	5953	3168 (53.2)	1437	933 (64.9)	<0.001
Vitals at Presentation					
Temperature (IQR) - F	5926	99 (98 - 100)	1427	99 (98 - 100)	0.35

SBP (IQR) - mmHg	5932	132 (117 - 148)	1430	127 (107 - 146)	< 0.001
DBP (IQR) - mmHg	5926	76 (67 - 85)	1428	71 (60 - 81)	< 0.001
HR (IQR) – bpm	5927	96 (83 - 110)	1429	100 (85 - 114)	< 0.001
Oxygen saturation (IQR) - %	5922	96 (93 - 98)	1430	92 (84 - 96)	< 0.001
Respiratory Rate (IQR) - bpm	5928	19 (18 - 21)	1428	22 (19 - 26)	< 0.001
Laboratory Markers					
Hemoglobin (IQR) - g/dL	5823	12.9 (11.4 - 14.1)	1408	12.6 (10.9 - 14.2)	0.006
Platelet count (IQR) -k/µL	5825	198 (137 - 264)	1408	172 (88 - 246)	< 0.001
White blood cell count (IQR) - $k/\mu L$	5823	6.9 (5.1 - 9.5)	1408	8.3 (6.0 - 11.9)	< 0.001
Absolute lymphocyte count (IQR) - k/µL	5880	1.1 (0.7 - 1.5)	1423	0.9 (0.6 - 1.2)	< 0.001
Sodium (IQR) – mEq/L	5879	137 (134 - 140)	1428	138 (134 - 143)	< 0.001
Potassium (IQR) – mEq/L	5845	4.2 (3.8 - 4.6)	1426	4.4 (4.0 – 5.0)	< 0.001
Chloride (IQR) – mEq/L	5864	100 (96 - 103)	1423	100 (95 - 104)	0.28
Bicarbonates (IQR) – mEq/L	5879	24 (21 - 27)	1428	22 (18 - 25)	< 0.001
Creatinine (IQR) - mg/dL	5876	1.0 (0.8 - 1.5)	1427	1.6 (1 - 2.9)	< 0.001
Glucose (IQR) - mg/dL	5879	126 (104 - 179)	1428	156 (121 - 236)	< 0.001
Aspartate aminotransferase (IQR) - U/L	5416	35 (24 - 55)	1312	52 (33 - 81)	< 0.001
Alanine aminotransferase (IQR) - U/L	5614	26 (16 - 42)	1376	28 (18 - 46)	< 0.001
Lactic acid (IQR) – mmol/L	5097	1.9 (1.4 - 2.6)	1347	2.6 (1.8 - 3.9)	< 0.001
Lactate dehydrogenase (IQR) - mmol/L	4017	384±219	926	518 (371 - 706)	< 0.001
Creatine Kinase (IQR) – U/L	4714	336 (253 - 454)	1218	777±2657	< 0.001
D-dimer (IQR) - µg/mL	3850	1.2 (0.7 - 2.5)	763	2.5 (1.3 - 6.9)	< 0.001
Procalcitonin (IQR) – ng/mL	2800	0.1 (0.1 - 0.3)	615	0.6 (0.2 - 2.4)	< 0.001

Troponin T* (IQR) - ng/mL	2365	0.01 (0.01 - 0.03)	302	0.03 (0.01 - 0.1)	<0.001
Troponin I* (IQR) – ng/mL	2684	0.01 (0.01 - 0.02)	981	0.02 (0.01 - 0.08)	< 0.001
Interleukin-6 (IQR) – pg/mL	1752	17 (6 - 40)	287	68 (26- 154)	< 0.001
Fibrinogen (IQR) – mg/dL	2478	570 (448 - 690)	460	621 (506 - 761)	< 0.001
Ferritin (IQR) – ng/mL	3395	521 (224 - 1112)	659	1021 (514 - 2161)	< 0.001

COPD = Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; DBP = Diastolic blood pressure; HR = Heart rate; IQR = Interquartile range; SBP = Systolic blood pressure. * Troponin T was available only until June 2020, Troponin I was available only after June 2020.

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Supplemental Table 3 - Comparison Spring Vs Winter

	Spring	(n=4495)	Winter (n=2254)		p- value
	Sample	Value	Sample	Value	
Demographics					
Age (IQR) - yr	4495	66 (55 - 77)	2254	67 (56 - 77)	0.051
Male sex - no (%)	4495	2377 (52.9)	2254	1122 (49.8)	0.016
Black race and / or Hispanic ethnicity – no (%)	4495	3345 (74.4)	2254	1635 (72.5)	0.098
Body Mass Index (IQR) - kg/m ²	4229	28.4 (24.6 - 33)	2194	28.2 (24.4 - 33.1)	0.433
Hospital bed saturation (IQR) - %	4495	97.4 (86.5 – 107.6	2254	95.3 (91.9 – 101.8)	<0.001
Past Medical History	5				
Hypertension - no (%)	4495	3370 (75)	2254	1713 (76)	0.357
Sleep apnea - no (%)	4495	521 (11.6)	2254	270 (12)	0.640
Hyperlipidemia - no (%)	4495	2609 (58)	2254	1380 (61.2)	0.012
Atrial fibrillation - no (%)	4495	449 (10)	2254	267 (11.8)	0.019
Chronic kidney disease - no (%)	4495	1406 (31.3)	2254	620 (27.5)	0.001
Heart failure - no (%)	4495	980 (21.8)	2254	519 (23)	0.254
Coronary artery disease - no (%)	4495	1316 (29.3)	2254	721 (32)	0.022
Asthma/COPD - no (%)	4495	1371 (30.5)	2254	753 (33.4)	0.015
Diabetes mellitus - no (%)	4495	2522 (56.1)	2254	1244 (55.2)	0.475
Vitals at Presentation					
Temperature (IQR) - F	4463	98.9 (98.2 - 100)	2254	98.7 (98.1 - 99.8)	<0.001

SBP (IQR) - mmHg	4469	131 (114 - 148)	2254	132 (117 - 148)	0.002
DBP (IQR) - mmHg	4465	75 (65 - 84)	2252	75 (67 - 84)	0.117
HR (IQR) – bpm	4467	98 (85 - 112)	2253	95 (82 - 107)	< 0.001
Oxygen saturation (IQR) - %	4463	95 (91 - 98)	2253	96 (92 - 98)	< 0.001
Respiratory Rate (IQR) - bpm	4466	20 (18 - 22)	2254	19 (18 - 22)	< 0.001
Laboratory Markers					
Hemoglobin (IQR) - g/dL	4372	12.8 (11.2 - 14.1)	2228	12.9 (11.5 - 14.2)	0.030
Platelet count (IQR) -k/µL	4372	188 (116 - 260)	2228	196 (143 - 259)	< 0.001
White blood cell count (IQR) - k/µL	4372	7.5 (5.6 - 10.6)	2228	6.4 (4.7 - 8.8)	< 0.001
Absolute lymphocyte count (IQR) - k/µL	4420	1 (0.7 - 1.4)	2246	1 (0.7 - 1.4)	0.062
Sodium (IQR) – mEq/L	4414	137 (134 - 141)	2253	137 (134 - 140)	< 0.001
Potassium (IQR) – mEq/L	4389	4.3 (3.9 - 4.8)	2243	4.1 (3.8 - 4.5)	< 0.001
Chloride (IQR) – mEq/L	4394	98 (95 - 103)	2253	101 (98 - 104)	< 0.001
Bicarbonates (IQR) – mEq/L	4414	24 (20 - 26)	2253	24 (21 - 27)	< 0.001
Creatinine (IQR) - mg/dL	4410	1.1 (0.8 - 2)	2253	1.1 (0.8 - 1.5)	< 0.001
Glucose (IQR) - mg/dL	4414	134 (108 - 197)	2253	126 (104 - 184)	< 0.001
Aspartate aminotransferase (IQR) - U/L	4045	40 (27 - 65)	2084	35 (24 - 55)	< 0.001
Alanine aminotransferase (IQR) - U/L	4206	27 (17 - 44)	2171	26 (17 - 44)	0.292
Lactic acid (IQR) – mmol/L	3981	2.1 (1.6 - 3)	1913	1.9 (1.4 - 2.5)	< 0.001
Lactate dehydrogenase (IQR) - mmol/L	2935	384 (285 - 535)	1563	341 (254 - 468)	< 0.001
Creatine Kinase (IQR) – U/L	3453	168 (83 - 401)	1957	126 (67 - 282)	< 0.001
D-dimer (IQR) - µg/mL	2204	1.8 (0.9 - 3.9)	1907	1.2 (0.7 - 2.3)	< 0.001

Procalcitonin (IQR) – ng/mL	1789	0.2 (0.1 - 0.9)	1252	0.1 (0.1 - 0.3)	< 0.001
Troponin T* (IQR) - ng/mL	0	NA	2106	0.01 (0.01 - 0.03)	NA
Troponin I* (IQR) – ng/mL	3662	0.01 (0.01 - 0.03)	0	NA	NA
Interleukin-6 (IQR) – pg/mL	1056	34 (14 - 75)	710	11 (4 - 26)	< 0.001
Fibrinogen (IQR) – mg/dL	1552	624 (491 - 750)	1040	536 (434 - 652)	< 0.001
Ferritin (IQR) – ng/mL	1969	716 (335 - 1498)	1637	510 (230 - 1094)	< 0.001

COPD = Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; DBP = Diastolic blood pressure; HR = Heart rate; IQR = Interquartile range; SBP = Systolic blood pressure. * Troponin T was available only until June 2020, Troponin I was available only after June 2020.

Supplemental References

1. Wu Z, McGoogan JM. Characteristics of and Important Lessons From the Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) Outbreak in China: Summary of a Report of 72 314 Cases From the Chinese Center for Disease Control and Prevention. Jama 2020;323:1239-42.

2. Williamson EJ, Walker AJ, Bhaskaran K, et al. Factors associated with COVID-19related death using OpenSAFELY. Nature 2020;584:430-6.

Tartof SY, Qian L, Hong V, et al. Obesity and Mortality Among Patients Diagnosed With 3. COVID-19: Results From an Integrated Health Care Organization. Ann Intern Med 2020;173:773-81.

STROBE Statement—Checklist of items that should be included in reports of cohort studies

	Item No	Recommendation	Page No
Title and abstract	1	(<i>a</i>) Indicate the study's design with a commonly used term in the title or the	1
		abstract	
		(b) Provide in the abstract an informative and balanced summary of what was	2
		done and what was found	
Introduction			
Background/rationale	2	Explain the scientific background and rationale for the investigation being	4
		reported	
Objectives	3	State specific objectives, including any prespecified hypotheses	4
Methods			1
Study design	4	Present key elements of study design early in the paper	4-5
Setting	5	Describe the setting, locations, and relevant dates, including periods of	4-5
		recruitment, exposure, follow-up, and data collection	
Participants	6	(a) Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and methods of selection of	4-5
		participants. Describe methods of follow-up	
		(b) For matched studies, give matching criteria and number of exposed and	
		unexposed	
Variables	7	Clearly define all outcomes, exposures, predictors, potential confounders, and	5 Supp
		effect modifiers. Give diagnostic criteria, if applicable	Supp
Data sources/	8*	For each variable of interest, give sources of data and details of methods of	4-5
measurement		assessment (measurement). Describe comparability of assessment methods if	
		there is more than one group	12
Bias	9	Describe any efforts to address potential sources of bias	12-
Study size	10	Explain how the study size was arrived at	4-5
Quantitative variables	11	Explain how quantitative variables were handled in the analyses. If applicable,	4-5
		describe which groupings were chosen and why	
Statistical methods	12	(a) Describe all statistical methods, including those used to control for	5-6
		confounding	
		(b) Describe any methods used to examine subgroups and interactions	Supp
		(c) Explain how missing data were addressed	
		(d) If applicable, explain how loss to follow-up was addressed	
		(<u>e</u>) Describe any sensitivity analyses	
Results			
Participants	13*	(a) Report numbers of individuals at each stage of study—eg numbers potentially	6-7
		eligible, examined for eligibility, confirmed eligible, included in the study,	
		completing follow-up, and analysed	
		(b) Give reasons for non-participation at each stage	
		(c) Consider use of a flow diagram	
Descriptive data	14*	(a) Give characteristics of study participants (eg demographic, clinical, social)	6-9
		and information on exposures and potential confounders	
		(b) Indicate number of participants with missing data for each variable of interest	
		(c) Summarise follow-up time (eg, average and total amount)	
Outcome data	15*	Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures over time	8-9

Main results	16	 (a) Give unadjusted estimates and, if applicable, confounder-adjusted estimates and their precision (eg, 95% confidence interval). Make clear which confounders were adjusted for and why they were included (b) Report category boundaries when continuous variables were categorized (c) If relevant, consider translating estimates of relative risk into absolute risk for a meaningful time period 	6-9
Other analyses	17	Report other analyses done—eg analyses of subgroups and interactions, and sensitivity analyses	9
Discussion			
Key results	18	Summarise key results with reference to study objectives	9
Limitations	19	Discuss limitations of the study, taking into account sources of potential bias or imprecision. Discuss both direction and magnitude of any potential bias	12- 13
Interpretation	20	Give a cautious overall interpretation of results considering objectives, limitations, multiplicity of analyses, results from similar studies, and other relevant evidence	9-11
Generalisability	21	Discuss the generalisability (external validity) of the study results	14
Other informati	ion		-
Funding	22	Give the source of funding and the role of the funders for the present study and, if	15
		applicable, for the original study on which the present article is based	

*Give information separately for exposed and unexposed groups.

Note: An Explanation and Elaboration article discusses each checklist item and gives methodological background and published examples of transparent reporting. The STROBE checklist is best used in conjunction with this article (freely available on the Web sites of PLoS Medicine at http://www.plosmedicine.org/, Annals of Internal Medicine at http://www.annals.org/, and Epidemiology at http://www.epidem.com/). Information on the STROBE Initiative is available at http://www.strobe-statement.org.

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Impact of COVID-19 Pandemic Management on Outcomes in a Large United States Hospital Center

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Impact of COVID-19 Pandemic Management on Outcomes in a 1 Large United States Hospital Center 2 Francesco Castagna MD¹, Xiaonan Xue PhD², Omar Saeed MD¹, Rachna Kataria MD¹, Yoram 3 4 A Puius MD PhD³, Snehal R Patel MD¹, Mario J Garcia MD¹, Andrew D Racine MD⁴, Daniel B 5 Sims MD¹, Ulrich P Jorde MD¹ 6 7 Affiliations: 8 9 ¹ Division of Cardiology, Montefiore Medical Center and Albert Einstein College of Medicine, 10 Bronx, NY 11 ² Department of Epidemiology and Population Health, Albert Einstein College of Medicine, 12 Bronx, NY ³ Division of Infectious Diseases, Montefiore Medical Center and Albert Einstein College of 13 14 Medicine, Bronx, NY ⁴ Department of Pediatrics, Montefiore Medical Center and Albert Einstein College of Medicine, 15 16 Bronx, New York. 17 Word count: 3,064 18 **Corresponding Author:** 19 Ulrich P. Jorde, MD 20 Professor of Medicine 21 Division of Cardiology 22 Department of Medicine 23 Montefiore Medical Center 3400 Bainbridge Ave. 7th floor 24 25 Bronx, NY 26 Email: ujorde@montefiore.org 27

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1 2 3 4	28	Abstract
5 6 7 8 9 10 11	29	Introduction: COVID-19 first struck New York City in the spring of 2020 resulting in an
	30	unprecedented strain on our health care system triggering multiple changes in public health
	31	policy governing hospital operations as well as therapeutic approaches to COVID-19. We
12 13 14	32	examined inpatient mortality at our center throughout the course of the pandemic.
15 16 17	33	Methods: Retrospective chart review of clinical characteristics, treatments, and outcome data of
18 19	34	all patients admitted with COVID-19 from March 1st, 2020 to February 28th, 2021. Patients were
20 21	35	grouped into three-month quartiles. Hospital strain was assessed as percent of occupied beds
22 23 24	36	based on a normal bed capacity of 1,491.
25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40	37	Results: Inpatient mortality decreased from 25.0% in spring to 10.8% over the course of the
	38	year. During this time, the use of remdesivir, steroids, and anticoagulants increased; the use of
	39	hydroxychloroquine and other antibiotics decreased. Daily bed occupancy ranged from 62% to
	40	118% occupancy. In a multivariate model with all year's data controlling for demographics,
	41	comorbidities, and acuity of illness, bed occupancy was associated with an increased COVID-19
	42	mortality. Yet further adjustment of bed occupancy showed a significant lower mortality rate
	43	during the second surge compared to the initial surge (HR 0.520, CI 0.448-0.604, p<0.001).
41 42 43	44	Propensity score analysis confirmed this difference in these two seasons (HR 0.580 CI: 0.507-
44 45 46	45	0.663, p<0.001).
47 48	46	Conclusion: Inpatient mortality from COVID-19 decreased to a degree disproportionate to
49 50	47	advances in disease specific therapeutics and was associated with bed occupancy. Early
51 52	48	reduction in epicenter hospital bed occupancy to accommodate acutely ill and resource-intensive
54 55	49	patients should be a critical component in the strategic planning for future pandemics.
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1 2 3 4 5	50	Strengths and limitations of this study
6 7	51	• Large cohort study (7,390 COVID-19 patients).
8 9	52	• Longitudinal analysis over 1 year of management and hospital policy changes.
10 11 12	53	• Analysis of mortality changes after adjustment for different therapies and clinical
13 14	54	parameters.
15 16	55	• Identification of the association between level of hospital system stress and mortality,
17 18 19	56	with important public health ramifications.
20 21	57	• Limitation: data on most recent variants are not included
22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 45 36 37 38 30 41 42 43 44 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57	58	
59 60		For peer review only - http://bmjopen.bmj.com/site/about/guidelines.xhtml

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Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) was declared a global pandemic by the World Health Organization on March 11th, 2020.¹ In the United States, after a cluster of cases reported from Washington state², New York state quickly became the initial epicenter of this pandemic with over 1.27 million of cases till date and over 50,000 fatalities with the highest concentration in the Bronx and Queens boroughs of New York City.³ Montefiore Einstein, with its three principal teaching hospitals and combined adult bed capacity of 1,491, is the primary health care provider for the large, nearly 1.5 million diverse population of the Bronx⁴ and experienced a "first wave" of COVID-19 admissions in the spring of 2020³, followed by a significant reduction of cases until a second surge in hospitalizations was noted in the winter of 2020. Throughout the course of the year, multiple public health measures - including those adapting hospital operation to a disaster level pandemic, such as cancellation of all elective procedures and waiver of state specific licensing for health care providers - were put in place. In addition, the understanding of COVID-19 pathophysiology improved ⁵⁶, new treatments were developed ⁷⁻¹⁰, parts of the general population^{11 12} as well as hospital personnel developed antibodies after COVID-19 illness ¹³, and our hospital system adapted to and then recovered from crisis mode.¹⁴ Here, we report outcomes of patients hospitalized with COVID-19 through one year since the first case, focusing on the differences observed between the spring and the winter surges.

METHODS:

79 Study Population

80 We retrospectively reviewed all adult patients admitted to Montefiore Medical Center with a real
81 time reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) assay positive for COVID-19

between March 1, 2020 and February 28, 2021. We divided this timeframe in four 3-month

seasons based on northern hemisphere calendar: spring (March 1, 2020 to May 31, 2020),

summer (June 1, 2020 to August 30, 2020), fall (September 1, 2020 to November 30, 2020), and

winter (December 1, 2020 to February 28, 2021).

Data Collection

Medical data including demographic, clinical, and laboratory variables were extracted from the electronic medical record system. The primary outcome was 30-day in-hospital mortality.

Statistical Analysis

Continuous variables are displayed as mean \pm standard deviation or median [25-75%]

interquartile range] and compared with the Student's t-test, or Wilcoxon ranks-sum, as

appropriate. Categorical data are presented as percent and compared by the chi-squared test. We

estimated the cumulative incidence of the primary endpoint in-hospital mortality for each season,

treating hospital discharge as a competing event.¹⁵ To avoid any bias due to differential follow-

up length, we censored the follow-up time at 30 days after the admission.

A multivariable competing risk proportional hazard models was used to estimate the sub-

distribution hazard ratios¹⁶¹⁷ for time to in-hospital death. The covariates in the multivariable

analyses included factors present in > 90% of our dataset, known to be associated with in-

hospital COVID-19 mortality based on prior literature^{6 18 19}, or with a univariate association with

in-hospital mortality (p < 0.05) and a clinical (relative difference >5%) difference between

survivors and non survivors (Supplemental Table 1). These variables included: age, sex, body

mass index (BMI), vital signs at presentation (temperature, systolic and diastolic blood pressure,

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3 4	105	heart rate, respiratory rate, pulse oxygen saturation), platelet count, white cell count, potassium,
5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16	106	bicarbonate, creatinine, glucose, alanine transaminase, aspartate transaminase, history of
	107	hypertension, dyslipidemia, chronic kidney disease (CKD), heart failure, coronary artery disease,
	108	asthma/chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, diabetes mellitus and statin use. Additionally,
	109	lactic acid level and percent of hospital bed saturation were forced into the model as marker of
	110	illness severity and level of hospital stress, respectively.
17 18 10	111	
19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35	112	Then we focused on examining the difference in in-hospital death between patients admitted in
	113	the spring and in the winter, as they represented the two largest and most temporal distant waves
	114	of the COVID-19 pandemic occurring before and after public health polices, specific therapeutic
	115	approaches and hospital management changes had been implemented. Selection method for
	116	covariates is presented in the Supplemental Material and Supplemental Table 2.
	117	The proportionality assumption was examined ²⁰ and no violation was identified. A two-sided
	118	p<0.05 was considered statistically significant.
36 37	119	
38 39	120	Propensity Score Analysis
40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53	121	To fully control the potential differences in patient population and hospital stress between spring
	122	and winter COVID-19 patients, we also used propensity score (PS) matching to compare the 30-
	123	day in-hospital mortality between spring and winter admissions. The same covariates used for
	124	the multivariable competing risk regression were used for PS matching. PS matching was carried
	125	out through a 1:1 greedy matching algorithm, with a caliper width of 0.1 SD. We then stratified
	126	on matched pair in the competing risk regression model. ^{21 22} Because one-to-one matching led to
54 55	127	a reduction in sample size, we used this analysis as a sensitivity analysis.
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3 4	128	All statistical analyses was performed with SPSS (IBM Corp, ver. 25, Armonk, NY) and the R
5 6	129	packages cmprsk and crrSC (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, ver 3.5)
7 8 0	130	
) 10 11	131	Patient and Public Involvement
12 13	132	Given the retrospective nature of our analysis, it was not appropriate or possible to involve
14 15 16	133	patients or the public in the design, or conduct, or reporting, or dissemination plans of our
10 17 18	134	research.
19 20	135	
21 22 22	136	RESULTS
23 24 25	137	7,390 COVID-19 positive adult patients were admitted between March 1, 2020 and February 28,
26 27	138	2021 (Figure 1). 4,495 patients were admitted during the spring, 264 during the summer, 377
28 29	139	during the fall, and 2,254 during the winter.
30 31 32	140	On April 8, 2020, peak of the spring season, the total numbers of simultaneously adult patients
33 34	141	admitted to our hospital (including those admitted to emergency adult wards at our children's
35 36	142	hospital ²³) was 1,762 (118% of nominal bed capacity); 1,201 of them (68.2%) were COVID-19
37 38 30	143	patients. On February 8, 2021, peak of winter season, 1,512 patients (101% of nominal bed
40 41	144	capacity) were admitted to our hospital and 393 of them (26.0%) were COVID-19 patients.
42 43	145	(Figure 1). Following cancellation of elective procedures, bed occupancy decreased to 70% by
44 45	146	the end of the spring season and remained at 90% until the beginning of the winter season, when
40 47 48	147	the second wave occurred in December 2020. Unadjusted mortality for patient admitted at the
49 50	148	beginning of spring, end of spring, beginning of winter, and end of winter was 28%, 8%, 14%,
51 52	149	and 13%, respectively (Figure 2).
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151 **Patient Population** 152 Demographics, past medical history, vital signs at arrivals, and initial laboratory blood tests are 153 presented in Table 1. Overall, median age was 66(55 - 77) years, 3.835 (51.9%) patients were 154 male, 5,519 (74.2%) were of Black race and/or Hispanic ethnicity. Median age ranged from 63 155 years (fall) to 67 years (spring). Sex distribution was similar throughout the year. Summer and 156 fall patients had the lowest and the highest BMI: 26.7 and 28.6 kg/m², respectively. 157 158 **Pharmacotherapy** 159 Changes in pharmacological approach is presented in **Supplemental Table 3** and **Figure 3**. 160 Spring patients were more likely to receive hydroxychloroquine, azithromycin and other 161 antibiotics. The use of Remdesivir substantially increased throughout the year (from less than 2% 162 during spring to almost 70% by the end of the winter). Steroids prescription (from 33% during 163 spring to almost 70% in February 2021), therapeutic anticoagulation therapy, as well as use of 164 statins, angiotensin converting inhibitors (ACE-I), or angiotensin receptor blockers (ARBs) also 165 increased. 166 167 Death, Intubation, and Length of Stay 168 Over the course of a year, 1,437 (19.4%) died while hospitalized. Patients who died were older, 169 had more comorbidities, and were more acutely ill consistent within prior reports on risk factors 170 for death in COVID-19⁵⁶ (Supplemental Table 1). Average unadjusted monthly mortality is

- 171 presented in **Figure 2**. 30-day in-hospital mortality (**Figure 4A**) was 25.0% for the spring
- 172 patients, 11.0% for summer patients, 6.9% for fall patients, and 11.4% for winter patients
- 173 (p<0.001). On average, spring patients died 6.4 (3.2 12.9) days after the arrival to the

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74	emergency department, summer patients 7.2 $(3.0 - 15.7)$ days after the arrival, fall patients 13.4		
75	(8.7 - 21.6) days after arrival, and winter patients 13.3 (6.8 - 20.7) days after the arrival		
76	(p<0.001). Frequency of invasive ventilatory support was higher during the spring with 892		
77	patients (19.4%) intubated, versus 27 (10.2%) in the summer, 36 (9.5%) during fall, and 268		
78	(11.9%) in the winter, p<0.001. Median time from arrival-to-intubation was 0.7 (0.1 - 4.1) days		
79	for spring patients, 0.6 (0.1 - 8.1) days for summer patients, 2.2 (0.1 - 7.3) days for fall patients,		
80	and 2.8 $(0.3 - 7.0)$ days for winter patients, p<0.001. Median length of stay was 6.1 $(3.5 - 11.1)$		
81	days during spring, 5.1 (2.7 – 10.1) days during summer, 5.0 ($3.0 - 10.1$) days during fall, and		
82	6.3 (3.8 – 12.0) days during winter, p<0.001.		
83			
84	Bed Saturation and Mortality		
85	We defined bed saturation the percentage of bed occupancy calculated from the ratio between the		
86	number of admitted patients over the nominal bed capacity of our institution (1,491).		
87	In the multivariable competing risk proportional hazard model of the entire cohort, percent of		
88	bed occupancy was associated with increased 30-day in-hospital mortality (HR 1.007, CI: 1.001,		
89	1.013, p=0.004); i.e mortality increase by 0.7 % for each 1% increase of bed occupancy.		
90	Consistent results were observed per level increase in bed occupancy quartile, (HR 1.086 [1.026		
91	-1.148], P-value for linear trend = 0.004). Results of the competing risk regression analysis are		
92	presented in the Table 2.		
93			
94	Spring vs Winter Mortality Comparison and Propensity Matched Analysis		
95	In the multivariable competing risk proportional hazard model comparing spring and winter		
96	season, 30-day in-hospital mortality was lower in winter (HR 0.520, CI 0.448-0.604, p<0.001)		

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197 when compared to spring. After PS caliper matching, there were 1,722 matched pairs. Spring and 198 winter patients had similar distribution of PS (Supplemental Figure 1) and standardized average 199 difference among covariates was greatly reduced. PS analysis showed a significant reduction of 200 in-hospital mortality during winter (HR 0.580 CI: 0.507-0.663, p<0.001) confirming what we 201 observed in the multivariable adjusted analysis (Figure 4B).

203 DISCUSSION

204 We examined inpatient mortality from COVID-19 over the course of a one-year pandemic at our 205 hospital system in New York City. Our principal findings are as follows: First, we observed a 206 substantial reduction of in-hospital mortality coinciding with multiple pandemic related public 207 health measures focusing on hospital resources on COVID-19 – and preceding comprehensive 208 changes in pharmacotherapy - towards the end of the first surge. Second, we describe - for the 209 first time - hospital bed occupancy as an independent risk factor for inpatient mortality from 210 COVID-19.

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212 **Public Health Measures in Response to COVID-19**

After declaring a state of disaster emergency (March 7, 2020), New York State introduced 213 214 different measures to limit the spread of the disease, including public schools closure (March 16, 215 2020), limitation of indoor dining (March 17, 2020), stay-home order for non-essential workers 216 (March 22, 2020), mandatory face coverings in public (April 15, 2020), and night subway 217 closure (April 30, 2020)²⁴. Despite these measures to limit the diffusion of the disease and a 218 generalized reduction of movements around New York City (as evidenced by a more than 90%) reduction of subway ridership compared to 2019)²⁵, more than 30% of Bronx residents were 219

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> 220 found to have positive antibodies (and thus possibly temporary immunity) against SARS-CoV-2 221 in August 2020.²⁶

222 Specifically relevant to hospital operations, executive order no. 202.5 (March 16, 2020)²⁷ 223 allowed healthcare providers not licensed or registered in New York State to temporarily work in 224 the State, and executive order no. 202.10 (March 22, 2020)²⁷ suspended elective operations. 225 These executive orders were associated with a dramatic drop in non-COVID-19 admissions at 226 our institution beginning March 16, 2020. (Figure 1). On March 26, 2020 New York State 227 Governor Cuomo additionally mandated all hospitals to increase their bed capacity by 50% to accommodate the surge of COVID-19 patients.²⁷ Despite this order, the actual bed occupancy at 228 229 our institution (while accommodating all COVID-19 patients presenting to our hospitals) 230 remained below the usual operating capacity until December 2020. 231 Notably, COVID-19 mortality remained stable throughout the summer and fall 2020 with low 232 case counts and increased utilization of steroids, anticoagulation, and remdesivir. Although 233 randomized controlled trials have shown morbidity benefits with the use of remdesevir⁷ and 234 mortality reduction with steroids⁸, the magnitude of these effects cannot explain the more than 235 50% reduction in mortality we observed. Furthermore, pharmacotherapy, with the exception of hydroxychloroquine elimination, did not materially change within the spring season, by the end 236 237 of which mortality was already decreased. Steroid, remdesivir, and therapeutic anticoagulation were used in 10-20% of patients by May 2020, but they reached 30-70% only in the winter 238 239 season. Despite that, unadjusted mortality began to increase again in December 2020 during the 240 second wave. Of note, bed occupancy also increased at that time and proved to be an

- 241 independent risk factor for COVID-19 mortality in our cohort of nearly 8,000 patients.
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243 Change in Therapeutic Approach

244 The initial widespread ($\geq 2/3$ of first spring patients) use of hydroxychloroquine, an agent eventually proven to be ineffective²⁸ to treat COVID-19, probably represents the most obvious 245 246 pandemic-associated deviation from the usual multiphase clinical trial standards of therapeutic 247 paradigm development. Only 8 of 2,254 patients received hydroxychloroquine during the winter 248 wave. Similarly, we observed a reduction in the use of azithromycin and other antibiotics, the 249 latter possibly reflecting a more careful assessment of the need to treat superimposed bacterial 250 infections during the second wave. Steroid therapy^{8 29} and therapeutic anticoagulation⁹ were 251 implemented in the majority of patients during the winter after the knowledge on the likely 252 disease modulating inflammatory proprieties and pro-thrombotic effect of COVID-19 had been 253 recognized³⁰ and, in the case of steroids, a therapeutic effect had been proven⁸. Remdesivir, an 254 inhibitor of the viral RNA-dependent RNA polymerase that showed shortening of recovery time 255 in hospitalized patients with COVID-19⁷, received emergency FDA approval on October 256 22nd,2020³¹ and was administered to almost half of the admitted patients during the winter. If 257 initial concerns of possible interactions between ACE-I or ARBs and SARS-CoV-2 32 led to a 258 possible underutilization or discontinuation of these drugs during the spring, we observed a 259 significant increase in their use during the following months, after no increased risks were 260 reported. 33 34

6 262 statins^{35 36}, their utilization markedly increased during the winter.

Lastly, after the spring wave provided anecdotal evidence for early proning in COVID-19
 pneumonia, an approach strongly favoring noninvasive ventilation and avoiding intubation was
 developed to address respiratory distress in COVID-19; more data about such an approach has

Similarly, after several reports showed a possible protective effect associated with the use of

since accumulated. ^{10 37} The cumulative effect of these therapeutic changes, in combination with a better preparedness to respond to a pandemic, can be estimate from the different mortality between the first surge (spring) and the second surge (winter). After matching the two groups for demographic and clinical variables, as well as for elements indicative of hospital distress (bed occupancy), a significant reduction of mortality was observed during the winter trimester.

272 Change in Hospital Stress Load

At the peak of the pandemic, the hospital saturation reached the 118% of the nominal bed capacity and COVID-19 patients accounted for 68.2% of all admitted patients. This increase in acutely ill patients created significant excess demand on the rest of the hospital infrastructure best characterized by the surge in the need for intensive care unit (ICU) beds and transformation of other hospital areas to ICUs.^{14 23} Despite increased patient load, the number of standard ICU beds, as well as laboratories, diagnostic equipment, and available personnel, remained the same as before the pandemic. This unmatched patient overload resulted in a 0.7 % mortality increase for each 1% increment in hospital bed saturation. In light of these results, strategies to minimize the bed occupancy for non-Covid-19 patients or non-life-saving admission should be adopted to diverge resources to improve the outcome of admitted Covid-19 patients.

284 Limitations

Our study has the shortcomings of a retrospective investigation, but there are some very specific aspects limiting the interpretation of our results. First, it is difficult to assess the true effects of pharmacotherapy given the dynamic changes in indications, doses, and usage that happened over the course of the year. Regardless, we believe the propensity-matched comparison between the Page 15 of 43

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spring and the winter waves provides compelling evidence for the validity of our principal observation of inpatient COVID-19 mortality reduction disproportionate to advances in pharmacotherapy. We chose total bed occupancy as a metric for hospital stress assuming that other resources per bed remained static. Notably, the ratio of COVID-19 to non-COVID-19 patients, ICU bed saturation, and staff shortages are unaccounted for in this model. Regrettably, an in-depth analysis of these metrics is beyond our ability in this retrospective pandemic analysis with disaster elements. Additionally, a significant number of patients received ICU-level-of-care interventions (mechanical ventilatory support, dialysis, vasopressors titration) on regular floors; therefore, the concept of ICU bed saturation might have been not truly representative of the burden. However, we feel our data is sufficiently strong to support the notion that bed capacity expansion alone is not the answer. Rather, a smaller number of beds with higher staffing accomplished by drastic reductions in all non-emergent procedures and activities is likely a better approach. Although offering fewer beds in pandemic situation appears initially quite counterintuitive, in practice we observed that mortality began to decrease once beds and resources were allocated specifically to COVID-19 patients by executive orders 202.5 and 202.10; and most importantly that bed occupancy never exceeded 100% once hospital operations focused on the COVID-19 pandemic only. It is conceivable that an uptrend in mortality observed late in the pandemic with established treatment paradigms could be due to new viral strains or a sicker patient population. Although we are unable to provide detailed strain analysis for our study population, a meaningful numbers of new (and possibly more virulent) strains were not yet observed in in the Bronx, where our study was conducted.³⁸ The small sample size of patients in summer and fall does not allow meaningful propensity matched comparisons, and when comparing summer, fall, and

winter populations, there do not appear to be clinically meaningful differences. Lastly, singlepatient data on vaccination status were not available. At the conclusion of the study, only 13.8% of the population of New York State received at least one dose and 7.4% received two doses³⁹. Given the heterogeneous distribution of vaccination within the state (and the city of New York), it is impossible to meaningfully account for these parameters. CONCLUSIONS Inpatient mortality from COVID-19 decreased to a degree disproportionate to advances in disease specific therapeutics and was associated with bed occupancy. Early reduction in epicenter hospital bed occupancy to accommodate acutely ill and resource-intensive patients should be a critical component in the strategic planning for future pandemics.

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325 **DECLARATIONS**

- 326 Ethics approval and consent to participate
- 327 The Office of Human Research Affairs at Albert Einstein College of Medicine approved this
- 328 study (# 2020-11308). Patient consent and HIPAA forms were waived by our IRB due to the
- 329 retrospective nature of our research.
- 330 **Consent for publication**
- 331 Non applicable.
- 332 Availability of data and materials
- 333 The datasets used and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding

er.

author on reasonable request.

2 335 Competing interests

336 No conflicts of interest exist.

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5	346	Design of the project: FC, XX, and UPJ.
7	347	Underlying data verified by FC, XX, and UPJ.
8 9 10 11	348 349	Acquisition, analysis, and interpretation of data: FC, XX, OM, RK, YAP, SRP, MJC, ADR, DS, and UPJ.
12 13	350	Statistical analysis: FC and XX.
14	351	Obtained funding: UPJ
15 16	352	Manuscript writing: FC, XX, and UPJ.
17 18 19	353 354	Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content: FC, XX, OM, RK, YAP, SRP, MJC, ADR, DS, and UPJ.
20	355	Supervision: UPJ
22 23	356	All the Authors reviewed the work and approved the final version.
24 25 26 27	357 358	FC and UPJ had full access to all the data in the study and take responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.
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29 30	360	Acknowledgements
31 32	361	Not applicable
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	Spr	Spring (n=4495)		Summer (n=264)		Fall (n=377)		nter (n=2254)
	Sample	Value	Sample	Value	Sample	Value	Sample	Value
30-Day hospital out	tcome	·		<u>.</u>		·		
Still admitted - no (%)	4495	194 (4.3)	264	6 (2.3)	377	15 (4.0)	2254	103 (4.6)
Discharged alive - no (%)	4495	3177 (70.7)	264	229 (86.7)	377	336 (89.1)	2254	1893 (84.0)
Dead in the hospital - no (%)	4495	1124 (25.0)	264	29 (11.0)	377	26 (6.9)	2254	258 (11.4)
Demographics		6	0.					
Age (IQR) - yr	4495	66 (55 - 77)	264	66 (50 - 76)	377	63 (50 - 73)	2254	67 (56 - 77)
Male sex - no (%)	4495	2377 (52.9)	264	138 (52.3)	377	198 (52.5)	2254	1122 (49.8)
Black race and / or Hispanic ethnicity – no (%)	4495	3345 (74.4)	264	219 (83.0)	377	286 (75.9)	2254	1635 (74.2)
Body Mass Index (IQR) - kg/m ²	4229	28.4 (24.6 - 33)	250	27.6 (22.5 - 32.7)	358	28.6 (25 - 34.1)	2194	28.2 (24.4 - 33.1)
Hospital bed saturation (IQR) - %	4495	97.4 (86.5 – 107.6)	264	81.7 (76.3 - 85.8)	377	87.6 (83.2 - 90.2)	2254	95.3 (91.9 - 101.8)
Past Medical History	7							
Hypertension - no (%)	4495	3370 (75)	264	197 (74.6)	377	254 (67.4)	2254	1713 (76)
Sleep apnea - no (%)	4495	521 (11.6)	264	28 (10.6)	377	47 (12.5)	2254	270 (12)
Hyperlipidemia - no (%)	4495	2609 (58)	264	153 (58)	377	199 (52.8)	2254	1380 (61.2)
Atrial fibrillation - no (%)	4495	449 (10)	264	30 (11.4)	377	35 (9.3)	2254	267 (11.8)

Table 1. Demographics, Past Medical History, and Clinical Characteristics of Admitted Patients

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disease - no (%)	4495	1406 (31.3)	264	70 (26.5)	377	85 (22.5)	2254	620 (27.5
Heart failure - no (%)	4495	980 (21.8)	264	72 (27.3)	377	66 (17.5)	2254	519 (23)
Coronary artery disease - no (%)	4495	1316 (29.3)	264	95 (36)	377	108 (28.6)	2254	721 (32)
Asthma/COPD - no (%)	4495	1371 (30.5)	264	84 (31.8)	377	98 (26)	2254	753 (33.4
Diabetes mellitus - no (%)	4495	2522 (56.1)	264	148 (56.1)	377	187 (49.6)	2254	1244 (55.2
Vitals at Presentation	1	-		· · ·				·
Temperature (IQR) - F	4463	98.9 (98.2 - 100)	264	98.4 (97.8 - 98.9)	372	98.8 (98.1 - 99.9)	2254	98.7 (98.1 - 9
SBP (IQR) - mmHg	4469	131 (114 - 148)	264	132 (117 - 149)	375	131 (117 - 147)	2254	132 (117 - 1
DBP (IQR) - mmHg	4465	75 (65 - 84)	263	77 (67 - 87)	374	74 (68 - 84)	2252	75 (67 - 84
HR (IQR) – bpm	4467	98 (85 - 112)	264	92.5 (76.3 - 105)	372	94 (80 - 107)	2253	95 (82 - 10
Oxygen saturation (IQR) - %	4463	95 (91 - 98)	264	98 (96 - 99)	372	96 (94 - 98)	2253	96 (92 - 98
Respiratory Rate (IQR) - bpm	4466	20 (18 - 22)	264	18 (17 - 20)	372	18 (18 - 20)	2254	19 (18 - 22
Laboratory Markers					0.			
Hemoglobin (IQR) - g/dL	4372	12.8 (11.2 - 14.1)	261	12.4 (10.7 - 13.9)	370	13 (11.6 - 14.3)	2228	12.9 (11.5 - 1
Platelet count (IQR)	4372	188 (116 - 260)	261	228 (169 - 300)	372	200 (144 - 257)	2228	196 (143 - 2:
-k/μL								
-k/μL White blood cell count (IQR) - k/μL	4372	7.5 (5.6 - 10.6)	261	8 (5.8 - 11)	370	6.6 (5.1 - 8.9)	2228	6.4 (4.7 - 8.
-k/μL White blood cell count (IQR) - k/μL Absolute lymphocyte count (IQR) - k/μL	4372 4420	7.5 (5.6 - 10.6) 1 (0.7 - 1.4)	261 263	8 (5.8 - 11) 1.2 (0.9 - 1.8)	370 374	6.6 (5.1 - 8.9) 1.1 (0.8 - 1.5)	2228 2246	6.4 (4.7 - 8.

Potassium (IQR) – mEq/L	4389	4.3 (3.9 - 4.8)	262	4.2 (3.8 - 4.6)	377	4 (3.8 - 4.4)	2243	4.1 (3.8 - 4.5)
Chloride (IQR) – mEq/L	4394	98 (95 - 103)	263	103 (100 - 105)	377	101 (99 - 104)	2253	101 (98 - 104)
Bicarbonates (IQR) - mEq/L	4414	24 (20 - 26)	263	24 (21 - 27)	377	25 (22 - 27)	2253	24 (21 - 27)
Creatinine (IQR) - mg/dL	4410	1.1 (0.8 - 2)	263	1 (0.8 - 1.5)	377	1 (0.8 - 1.3)	2253	1.1 (0.8 - 1.5)
Glucose (IQR) - mg/dL	4414	134 (108 - 197)	263	121 (100 - 171)	377	122 (102 - 173)	2253	126 (104 - 184)
Aspartate aminotransferase (IQR) - U/L	4045	40 (27 - 65)	245	26 (20 - 38)	354	31 (21 - 47)	2084	35 (24 - 55)
Alanine aminotransferase (IQR) - U/L	4206	27 (17 - 44)	252	21 (14 - 32)	361	25 (16 - 41)	2171	26 (17 - 44)
Lactic acid (IQR) – mmol/L	3981	2.1 (1.6 - 3)	220	1.9 (1.4 - 2.7)	330	1.8 (1.3 - 2.5)	1913	1.9 (1.4 - 2.5)
Lactate dehydrogenase (IQR) - mmol/L	2935	384 (285 - 535)	160	254.5 (196 - 340)	285	300 (225 - 383)	1563	341 (254 - 468)
Creatine Kinase (IQR) – U/L	3453	168 (83 - 401)	209	97 (57 - 176)	313	116 (60 - 213)	1957	126 (67 - 282)
D-dimer (IQR) - μg/mL	2204	1.8 (0.9 - 3.9)	185	1.1 (0.5 - 2.2)	317	0.8 (0.5 - 1.6)	1907	1.2 (0.7 - 2.3)
Procalcitonin (IQR) - ng/mL	1789	0.2 (0.1 - 0.9)	120	0.1 (0.1 - 0.4)	254	0.1 (0.1 - 0.2)	1252	0.1 (0.1 - 0.3)
Troponin T* (IQR) - ng/mL	0	NA	219	0.01 (0.01 - 0.03)	342	0.01 (0.01 - 0.02)	2106	0.01 (0.01 - 0.03)
Troponin I* (IQR) – ng/mL	3662	0.01 (0.01 - 0.03)	3	0.01 (0.01 - 0.01)	0	NA	0	NA
Interleukin-6 (IQR) – pg/mL	1056	33.6 (13.8 - 75.2)	87	11.7 (3 - 43.1)	186	11 (4.7 - 22.2)	710	10.8 (4.3 - 25.6)
Fibrinogen (IQR) – mg/dL	1552	624 (491 - 750)	122	448 (370- 583)	224	540 (436 - 663)	1040	535.5 (434 - 652)

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COPD = Chronic obs	structive pu	Imonary disease; DBI	P = Diastoli	ic blood pressure; H	R = Heart 1	rate; IQR = Interqua	rtile range;	SBP =
Systolic blood pressu	re. * Tropo	onin T was available o	nly until Ju	ine 2020, Troponin I	was availa	able only after June	2020.	
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	Multivariable	<u>)</u>
Variable	HR (95% CI)	P-value
Age - yr	1.046 (1.04 - 1.051)	< 0.001
Male sex - yes/no	1.352 (1.187 - 1.54)	< 0.001
Body mass index - kg/m2	1.022 (1.012 - 1.032)	< 0.001
Temperature - F	1.071 (1.036 - 1.108)	< 0.001
SBP - mmHg	0.994 (0.991 - 0.997)	< 0.001
DBP - mmHg	0.996 (0.991 - 1.001)	0.14
HR - bpm	1.003 (0.999 - 1.006)	0.11
Oxygen saturation - %	0.967 (0.961 - 0.972)	< 0.001
Respiratory rate - bpm	1.027 (1.019 - 1.035)	< 0.001
White blood cell count - k/µL 🦯	1.008 (1.001 - 1.016)	0.02
Glucose - mg/dL	1.001 (1 - 1.001)	0.001
Aspartate aminotransferase - U/L	1 (1 - 1.001)	0.21
Alanine aminotransferase - U/L	1 (0.999 - 1)	0.25
Lactic acid – mmol/L	1.071 (1.036 - 1.107)	< 0.001
Platelet count -k/µL	0.999 (0.998 - 0.999)	< 0.001
Potassium – mEq/L	1.096 (1.028 - 1.168)	0.0052
Bicarbonates – mEq/L	0.957 (0.944 - 0.971)	< 0.001
Creatinine - mg/dL	1.023 (0.998 - 1.049)	0.069
HTN - yes/no	1.008 (0.851 - 1.194)	0.93
HLD - yes/no	1.196 (1.02 - 1.401)	0.027
CKD - yes/no	1.263 (1.09 - 1.462)	0.002
HF - yes/no	1.33 (1.146 - 1.543)	< 0.001
COPD/Asthma - yes/no	0.948 (0.827 - 1.088)	0.45
DM - yes/no	0.946 (0.819 - 1.093)	0.45
CAD - yes/no	1.101 (0.955 - 1.271)	0.19
Statin use - %	0.577 (0.501 - 0.664)	< 0.001

Table 2. Association with In-Hospital Mortality (Regression models with competing risks)

Bed occupancy - %1.007 (1.002 - 1.013)0.004CAD = Coronary artery disease; CKD = Chronic kidney disease; COPD = Chronic obstructivepulmonary disease; DBP = Diastolic blood pressure; DM= Diabetes mellitus; HLD =hyperlipidemia; HF = Heart failure; HR = Heart rate; HTN = Hypertension; SBP = Systolicblood pressure

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Simultaneously Admitted Patients

This graph includes the hospitalized patients and the admitted patients in the emergency

department waiting for a bed. A precipitous decline of non-COVID-19 admissions begins on

March 16, 2020 (vertical gray line) coinciding with gubernatorial health care associated

directives in the State of New York. The dotted red line indicates the nominal bed capacity of our

institution (1,491 beds).

Figure 2. Cumulative Monthly Admission and Mortality

Cumulative monthly admissions (blue line, left axis) and mortality (orange line, right axis) over the year.

Figure 3. Change in Therapies

Percent of patients receiving specific therapies over the year. Lezoni

Figure 4. Cumulative Incidences

30-day in-hospital mortality by seasons.





Figure 1

85x62mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Figure 2 90x74mm (300 x 300 DPI)









Figure 3

89x79mm (300 x 300 DPI)

60

Spring

Winter

15 20 25 30

days in hospital



Supplemental Appendix

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Supplemental Table 1 - Comparison Survivors versus Non-survivors

	Surv	vivors (n=5953)	Non-sur	vivors (n=1437)	p-value
	Sample	Value	Sample	Value	
Demographics					
Age (IQR) - yr	5953	64 (52 - 75)	1437	73 (65 - 82)	< 0.001
Male sex - no (%)	5953	2989 (50.2)	1437	846 (58.9)	< 0.001
Black race and / or Hispanic ethnicity – no (%)	5953	4472 (75.1)	1437	1013 (70.5)	< 0.001
Body Mass Index (IQR) - kg/m ²	5679	28.4 (24.6 - 33.2)	1352	27.9 (23.8 - 32.6)	< 0.001
Hospital bed saturation (IQR) -	5953	94.1 (86.5 - 104.8)	1437	99.3 (87.5 - 107.6)	< 0.001
Past Medical History	R				
Hypertension - no (%)	5953	4365 (73.3)	1437	1169 (81.4)	< 0.001
Sleep apnea - no (%)	5953	688 (11.6)	1437	178 (12.4)	0.38
Hyperlipidemia - no (%)	5953	3366 (56.5)	1437	975 (67.8)	< 0.001
Atrial fibrillation - no (%)	5953	557 (9.4)	1437	224 (15.6)	< 0.001
Chronic kidney disease - no (%)	5953	1559 (26.2)	1437	622 (43.3)	< 0.001
Heart failure - no (%)	5953	1181 (19.8)	1437	456 (31.7)	< 0.001
Coronary artery disease - no (%)	5953	1653 (27.8)	1437	587 (40.8)	< 0.001
Asthma/COPD - no (%)	5953	1842 (30.9)	1437	464 (32.3)	0.32
Diabetes mellitus - no (%)	5953	3168 (53.2)	1437	933 (64.9)	< 0.001
Vitals at Presentation					
Temperature (IQR) - F	5926	99 (98 - 100)	1427	99 (98 - 100)	0.35
SBP (IQR) - mmHg	5932	132 (117 - 148)	1430	127 (107 - 146)	< 0.001
DBP (IQR) - mmHg	5926	76 (67 - 85)	1428	71 (60 - 81)	< 0.001
HR (IQR) – bpm	5927	96 (83 - 110)	1429	100 (85 - 114)	< 0.001

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Oxygen saturation (IQR) - %	5922	96 (93 - 98)	1430	92 (84 - 96)	< 0.001
Respiratory Rate (IQR) - bpm	5928	19 (18 - 21)	1428	22 (19 - 26)	<0.001
Laboratory Markers					
Hemoglobin (IQR) - g/dL	5823	12.9 (11.4 - 14.1)	1408	12.6 (10.9 - 14.2)	0.006
Platelet count (IQR) -k/µL	5825	198 (137 - 264)	1408	172 (88 - 246)	< 0.001
White blood cell count (IQR) - k/uL	5823	6.9 (5.1 - 9.5)	1408	8.3 (6.0 - 11.9)	< 0.001
Absolute lymphocyte count IQR) - k/μL	5880	1.1 (0.7 - 1.5)	1423	0.9 (0.6 - 1.2)	< 0.001
Sodium (IQR) – mEq/L	5879	137 (134 - 140)	1428	138 (134 - 143)	< 0.001
Potassium (IQR) – mEq/L	5845	4.2 (3.8 - 4.6)	1426	4.4 (4.0 - 5.0)	< 0.001
Chloride (IQR) – mEq/L	5864	100 (96 - 103)	1423	100 (95 - 104)	0.28
Bicarbonates (IQR) – mEq/L	5879	24 (21 - 27)	1428	22 (18 - 25)	< 0.001
Creatinine (IQR) - mg/dL	5876	1.0 (0.8 - 1.5)	1427	1.6 (1 - 2.9)	< 0.001
Glucose (IQR) - mg/dL	5879	126 (104 - 179)	1428	156 (121 - 236)	< 0.001
Aspartate aminotransferase (IOR) - U/L	5416	35 (24 - 55)	1312	52 (33 - 81)	< 0.001
Alanine aminotransferase (IQR) - U/L	5614	26 (16 - 42)	1376	28 (18 - 46)	< 0.001
Lactic acid (IQR) – mmol/L	5097	1.9 (1.4 - 2.6)	1347	2.6 (1.8 - 3.9)	< 0.001
Lactate dehydrogenase (IQR) - mmol/L	4017	384±219	926	518 (371 - 706)	< 0.001
Creatine Kinase (IQR) – U/L	4714	336 (253 - 454)	1218	777±2657	< 0.001
D-dimer (IQR) - μg/mL	3850	1.2 (0.7 - 2.5)	763	2.5 (1.3 - 6.9)	< 0.001
Procalcitonin (IQR) – ng/mL	2800	0.1 (0.1 - 0.3)	615	0.6 (0.2 - 2.4)	< 0.001
Troponin T* (IQR) - ng/mL	2365	0.01 (0.01 - 0.03)	302	0.03 (0.01 - 0.1)	< 0.001
Troponin I* (IQR) – ng/mL	2684	0.01 (0.01 - 0.02)	981	0.02 (0.01 - 0.08)	< 0.001
Interleukin-6 (IQR) – pg/mL	1752	17 (6 - 40)	287	68 (26- 154)	< 0.001
Fibrinogen (IQR) – mg/dL	2478	570 (448 - 690)	460	621 (506 - 761)	< 0.001

1	Ferritin (IQR) – ng/mL	3395	521 (224 - 1112)	659	1021 (514 - 2161)	< 0.001
2 3 4 5 6	COPD = Chronic obstructive pulmo Interquartile range; SBP = Systolic was available only after June 2020.	onary diseas blood press	e; DBP = Diastolic blo ure. * Troponin T was	ood pressure; H available only	HR = Heart rate; IQR until June 2020, Tro	= ponin I
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Supplemental Methods

Covariate Selection Method for Multivariable Competing Risk Proportional Hazard Models for in-hospital Death between Patients Spring and Winter Patients

The covariates in the multivariable analyses included factors present in > 90% of our dataset, are known to be associated with in-hospital COVID-19 mortality based on prior literature or with a univariate association between admission season (exposure) or in-hospital mortality (outcome) (p<0.05) and a clinical (relative difference >5%) difference between the spring and winter patients (Supplemental Table 2). These variables included: age, sex, BMI, vital signs at presentation, white cell count, creatinine, glucose, alanine transaminase, history of hypertension, dyslipidemia, chronic kidney disease (CKD), heart failure, coronary artery disease, asthma/chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, diabetes mellitus and statin use. Also in this model, lactic acid level and percent of hospital bed saturation were forced into the model as marker of illness severity and level of hospital stress, respectively.

Supplemental Table 2 - Comparison Spring Vs Winter

	Spi	ring (n=4495)	Wi	nter (n=2254)	p- value
	Sample	Value	Sample	Value	
Demographics					
Age (IQR) - yr	4495	66 (55 - 77)	2254	67 (56 - 77)	0.051
Male sex - no (%)	4495	2377 (52.9)	2254	1122 (49.8)	0.016
Black race and / or Hispanic ethnicity – no (%)	4495	3345 (74.4)	2254	1635 (72.5)	0.098
Body Mass Index (IQR) - kg/m ²	4229	28.4 (24.6 - 33)	2194	28.2 (24.4 - 33.1)	0.433
Hospital bed saturation (IQR) - %	4495	97.4 (86.5 – 107.6	2254	95.3 (91.9 - 101.8)	< 0.001
Past Medical History	0				
Hypertension - no (%)	4495	3370 (75)	2254	1713 (76)	0.357
Sleep apnea - no (%)	4495	521 (11.6)	2254	270 (12)	0.640
Hyperlipidemia - no (%)	4495	2609 (58)	2254	1380 (61.2)	0.012
Atrial fibrillation - no (%)	4495	449 (10)	2254	267 (11.8)	0.019
Chronic kidney disease - no (%)	4495	1406 (31.3)	2254	620 (27.5)	0.001
Heart failure - no (%)	4495	980 (21.8)	2254	519 (23)	0.254
Coronary artery disease - no (%)	4495	1316 (29.3)	2254	721 (32)	0.022
Asthma/COPD - no (%)	4495	1371 (30.5)	2254	753 (33.4)	0.015
Diabetes mellitus - no (%)	4495	2522 (56.1)	2254	1244 (55.2)	0.475
Vitals at Presentation					
Temperature (IQR) - F	4463	98.9 (98.2 - 100)	2254	98.7 (98.1 - 99.8)	< 0.001
SBP (IQR) - mmHg	4469	131 (114 - 148)	2254	132 (117 - 148)	0.002
DBP (IQR) - mmHg	4465	75 (65 - 84)	2252	75 (67 - 84)	0.117
HR (IQR) – bpm	4467	98 (85 - 112)	2253	95 (82 - 107)	< 0.001

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Oxygen saturation (IQR) - %	4463	95 (91 - 98)	2253	96 (92 - 98)	< 0.001
Respiratory Rate (IQR) - bpm	4466	20 (18 - 22)	2254	19 (18 - 22)	< 0.001
Laboratory Markers					
Hemoglobin (IQR) - g/dL	4372	12.8 (11.2 - 14.1)	2228	12.9 (11.5 - 14.2)	0.030
Platelet count (IQR) -k/µL	4372	188 (116 - 260)	2228	196 (143 - 259)	< 0.001
White blood cell count (IQR) - k/µL	4372	7.5 (5.6 - 10.6)	2228	6.4 (4.7 - 8.8)	< 0.001
Absolute lymphocyte count (IQR) - k/μL	4420	1 (0.7 - 1.4)	2246	1 (0.7 - 1.4)	0.062
Sodium (IQR) – mEq/L	4414	137 (134 - 141)	2253	137 (134 - 140)	< 0.001
Potassium (IQR) – mEq/L	4389	4.3 (3.9 - 4.8)	2243	4.1 (3.8 - 4.5)	< 0.001
Chloride (IQR) – mEq/L	4394	98 (95 - 103)	2253	101 (98 - 104)	< 0.001
Bicarbonates (IQR) – mEq/L	4414	24 (20 - 26)	2253	24 (21 - 27)	< 0.001
Creatinine (IQR) - mg/dL	4410	1.1 (0.8 - 2)	2253	1.1 (0.8 - 1.5)	< 0.001
Glucose (IQR) - mg/dL	4414	134 (108 - 197)	2253	126 (104 - 184)	< 0.001
Aspartate aminotransferase (IQR) - U/L	4045	40 (27 - 65)	2084	35 (24 - 55)	< 0.001
Alanine aminotransferase (IQR) - U/L	4206	27 (17 - 44)	2171	26 (17 - 44)	0.292
Lactic acid (IQR) – mmol/L	3981	2.1 (1.6 - 3)	1913	1.9 (1.4 - 2.5)	< 0.001
Lactate dehydrogenase (IQR) - mmol/L	2935	384 (285 - 535)	1563	341 (254 - 468)	< 0.001
Creatine Kinase (IQR) – U/L	3453	168 (83 - 401)	1957	126 (67 - 282)	< 0.001
D-dimer (IQR) - µg/mL	2204	1.8 (0.9 - 3.9)	1907	1.2 (0.7 - 2.3)	< 0.001
Procalcitonin (IQR) – ng/mL	1789	0.2 (0.1 - 0.9)	1252	0.1 (0.1 - 0.3)	< 0.001
Гroponin T* (IQR) - ng/mL	0	NA	2106	0.01 (0.01 - 0.03)	NA
Froponin I* (IQR) – ng/mL	3662	0.01 (0.01 - 0.03)	0	NA	NA
Interleukin-6 (IQR) – pg/mL	1056	34 (14 - 75)	710	11 (4 - 26)	<0.001
Fibrinogen (IQR) – mg/dL	1552	624 (491 - 750)	1040	536 (434 - 652)	< 0.001

1	Ferritin (IQR) – ng/mL	1969	716 (335 - 1498)	1637	510 (230 - 1094)	< 0.001
2 3 4	COPD = Chronic obstructive pulmonar Interquartile range; SBP = Systolic bloc	y disease; D od pressure.	BP = Diastolic blood j * Troponin T was ava	pressure; H	R = Heart rate; IQR = until June 2020, Trope	onin I
5 6 7	was available only after June 2020.					
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59 60	For peer review or	nly - http://bmj	jopen.bmj.com/site/about	t/guidelines.x	html	

	Spring (n=4495)	Summer (n=264)	Fall (n=377)	Winter (n=2254)
Hydroxychloroquine - no (%)	3007 (66.9)	1 (0.4)	2 (0.5)	8 (0.4)
Azithromycin - no (%)	1322 (29.4)	51 (19.3)	118 (31.3)	374 (16.6)
Other antibiotics - no (%)	3382 (75.2)	160 (60.6)	214 (56.8)	1082 (48)
Steroids - no (%)	1485 (33)	71 (26.9)	195 (51.7)	1462 (64.9)
Angiotensin-converting- enzyme Inhibitors - no (%)	318 (7.1)	36 (13.6)	51 (13.5)	269 (11.9)
Angiotensin II receptor blockers - no (%)	264 (5.9)	23 (8.7)	32 (8.5)	212 (9.4)
Statin - no (%)	1478 (32.9)	109 (41.3)	129 (34.2)	1002 (44.5)
Therapeutic anticoagulation - no (%)	1041/4496 (31.2)	76 (28.8)	98 (26.0)	772 (34.3)
Remdesivir* - no (%)	78 (1.7)	37 (14)	134 (35.5)	1224 (54.3)
Lopinavir/Ritonavir – no (%)	40 (0.9)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Ivermectin – no (%)	11 (0.2)	1 (0.4)	0 (0)	34 (1.5)

Supplemental Table 3 - Therapies Administered during the Admission

* 45 patients listed as remdesivir recipients in the spring season were part of a 1:1 double-blind, placebocontrolled study. Instead, all the patients in summer, fall, and winter seasons listed as remdesivir recipients Ats III Summe received the actual medication.

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FINAL MODEL Sex Age BMI Temperature SBP BBP BBP HR Saturation Respiratory rate HTN HLD CKD
Sex Age BMI 0 Temperature 1 2 3 DBP 4 4 5 4 6 5 7 8 9 HTN 0 1 1 1 2 2 3
Age BMI Temperature SBP DBP HR Saturation Respiratory rate HTN HLD CKD
Age BMI Temperature SBP OBP HR Saturation Respiratory rate HTN HLD CKD
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DBPImage: Constraint of the second secon
HR O O O O O O O O O O O O O O O O O O O
Saturation Respiratory rate HTN HLD CKD UF
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HLD CKD
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DM
CAD NO
Glucose
AST 0
Lactic acid
Statin use
Bed saturation
◦ before matching
• after matching
-0.4 -0.2 0.0 0.2 0.4

Supplemental Figure 1 - Distribution of Propensity Score

AST = aspartate transaminase; BMI= body mass index; CAD= coronary artery disease; COPD = chronic
 obstructive pulmonary disease; CKD = chronic kidney disease; DBP= diastolic blood pressure; DM = Diabetes
 mellitus; HF= heart failure; HLD = hyperlipidemia; HNT = hypertension; HR = heart rate; SBP = systolic blood
 pressure; WBC = white blood cell count

STROBE Statement—Checklist of items that should be included in reports of cohort studies

	Item No	Recommendation	Page No
Title and abstract	1	(<i>a</i>) Indicate the study's design with a commonly used term in the title or the	1
		abstract	
		(b) Provide in the abstract an informative and balanced summary of what was	2
		done and what was found	
Introduction			
Background/rationale	2	Explain the scientific background and rationale for the investigation being	4
		reported	
Objectives	3	State specific objectives, including any prespecified hypotheses	4
Methods			1
Study design	4	Present key elements of study design early in the paper	4-5
Setting	5	Describe the setting, locations, and relevant dates, including periods of	4-5
		recruitment, exposure, follow-up, and data collection	
Participants	6	(a) Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and methods of selection of	4-5
		participants. Describe methods of follow-up	
		(b) For matched studies, give matching criteria and number of exposed and	
		unexposed	
Variables	7	Clearly define all outcomes, exposures, predictors, potential confounders, and	5 Supp
		effect modifiers. Give diagnostic criteria, if applicable	Supp
Data sources/	8*	For each variable of interest, give sources of data and details of methods of	4-5
measurement		assessment (measurement). Describe comparability of assessment methods if	
		there is more than one group	12
Bias	9	Describe any efforts to address potential sources of bias	12-
Study size	10	Explain how the study size was arrived at	4-5
Quantitative variables	11	Explain how quantitative variables were handled in the analyses. If applicable,	4-5
		describe which groupings were chosen and why	
Statistical methods	12	(a) Describe all statistical methods, including those used to control for	5-6
		confounding	
		(b) Describe any methods used to examine subgroups and interactions	Supp
		(c) Explain how missing data were addressed	
		(d) If applicable, explain how loss to follow-up was addressed	
		(<u>e</u>) Describe any sensitivity analyses	
Results			
Participants	13*	(a) Report numbers of individuals at each stage of study—eg numbers potentially	6-7
		eligible, examined for eligibility, confirmed eligible, included in the study,	
		completing follow-up, and analysed	
		(b) Give reasons for non-participation at each stage	
		(c) Consider use of a flow diagram	
Descriptive data	14*	(a) Give characteristics of study participants (eg demographic, clinical, social)	6-9
		and information on exposures and potential confounders	
		(b) Indicate number of participants with missing data for each variable of interest	
		(c) Summarise follow-up time (eg, average and total amount)	
Outcome data	15*	Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures over time	8-9

Main results	16	 (a) Give unadjusted estimates and, if applicable, confounder-adjusted estimates and their precision (eg, 95% confidence interval). Make clear which confounders were adjusted for and why they were included (b) Report category boundaries when continuous variables were categorized (c) If relevant, consider translating estimates of relative risk into absolute risk for a meaningful time period 	6-9
Other analyses	17	Report other analyses done—eg analyses of subgroups and interactions, and sensitivity analyses	9
Discussion			
Key results	18	Summarise key results with reference to study objectives	9
Limitations	19	Discuss limitations of the study, taking into account sources of potential bias or imprecision. Discuss both direction and magnitude of any potential bias	12- 13
Interpretation	20	Give a cautious overall interpretation of results considering objectives, limitations, multiplicity of analyses, results from similar studies, and other relevant evidence	9-11
Generalisability	21	Discuss the generalisability (external validity) of the study results	14
Other informati	ion		-
Funding	22	Give the source of funding and the role of the funders for the present study and, if	15
		applicable, for the original study on which the present article is based	

*Give information separately for exposed and unexposed groups.

Note: An Explanation and Elaboration article discusses each checklist item and gives methodological background and published examples of transparent reporting. The STROBE checklist is best used in conjunction with this article (freely available on the Web sites of PLoS Medicine at http://www.plosmedicine.org/, Annals of Internal Medicine at http://www.annals.org/, and Epidemiology at http://www.epidem.com/). Information on the STROBE Initiative is available at http://www.strobe-statement.org.

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BMJ Open

Hospital Bed Occupancy Rate is An Independent Risk Factor for COVID-19 Inpatient Mortality: A Pandemic Epicenter Cohort Study

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Keywords:	COVID-19, Public health < INFECTIOUS DISEASES, EPIDEMIOLOGY

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3 4	1	Hospital Bed Occupancy Rate is An Independent Risk Factor for		
5 6 7	2	COVID-19 Inpatient Mortality: A Pandemic Epicenter Cohort		
8 9 10 11	3	Study		
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2 3 4	27	Abstract
5 6 7	28	Introduction: COVID-19 first struck New York City in the spring of 2020 resulting in an
8 9	29	unprecedented strain on our health care system triggering multiple changes in public health
10 11 12	30	policy governing hospital operations as well as therapeutic approaches to COVID-19. We
13 14	31	examined inpatient mortality at our center throughout the course of the pandemic.
15 16 17	32	Methods: Retrospective chart review of clinical characteristics, treatments, and outcome data of
18 19	33	all patients admitted with COVID-19 from March 1st, 2020 to February 28th, 2021. Patients were
20 21 22	34	grouped into three-month quartiles. Hospital strain was assessed as percent of occupied beds
22 23 24	35	based on a normal bed capacity of 1,491.
25 26 27	36	Results: Inpatient mortality decreased from 25.0% in spring to 10.8% over the course of the
27 28 29	37	year. During this time, the use of Remdesivir, steroids, and anticoagulants increased; the use of
30 31	38	hydroxychloroquine and other antibiotics decreased. Daily bed occupancy ranged from 62% to
32 33 34	39	118% occupancy. In a multivariate model with all year's data controlling for demographics,
35 36	40	comorbidities, and acuity of illness, percentage of bed occupancy was associated with increased
37 38 30	41	30-day in-hospital mortality of COVID-19 patients (0.7% mortality increase for each 1%
39 40 41	42	increase in bed occupancy - HR 1.007, CI: 1.001, 1.013, p=0.004)
42 43	43	Conclusion: Inpatient mortality from COVID-19 was associated with bed occupancy. Early
44 45 46	44	reduction in epicenter hospital bed occupancy to accommodate acutely ill and resource-intensive
47 48	45	patients should be a critical component in the strategic planning for future pandemics.
49 50 51 52 53 54 55	46	
50 57 58		2

1 2 3 4 5	47	Strengths and limitations of this study
6 7	48	• Large cohort study (7,390 COVID-19 patients).
8 9	49	• Longitudinal analysis over 1 year of management and hospital policy changes.
10 11 12	50	• Analysis of mortality changes after adjustment for different therapies and clinical
13 14	51	parameters.
15 16	52	• Identification of the association between level of hospital system stress and mortality,
17 18 19	53	with important public health ramifications.
20 21	54	• Limitation: data on most recent variants are not included
22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 4 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 9 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57	55	
59 60		For peer review only - http://bmjopen.bmj.com/site/about/guidelines.xhtml

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56	INTRODUCTION
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Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) was declared a global pandemic by the World Health Organization on March 11th, 2020.¹ In the United States, after a cluster of cases reported from Washington state², New York state quickly became the initial epicenter of this pandemic with over 1.27 million of cases till date and over 50,000 fatalities with the highest concentration in the Bronx and Queens boroughs of New York City.³ Montefiore Einstein, with its three principal teaching hospitals and combined adult bed capacity of 1,491, is the primary health care provider for the large, nearly 1.5 million diverse population of the Bronx⁴ and experienced a "first wave" of COVID-19 admissions in the spring of 2020³, followed by a significant reduction of cases until a second surge in hospitalizations was noted in the winter of 2020. Throughout the course of the year, multiple public health measures - including those adapting hospital operation to a disaster level pandemic, such as cancellation of all elective procedures and waiver of state specific licensing for health care providers - were put in place. In addition, the understanding of COVID-19 pathophysiology improved ⁵⁶, new treatments were developed ⁷⁻¹⁰, parts of the general population^{11 12} as well as hospital personnel developed antibodies after COVID-19 illness ¹³, and our hospital system adapted to and then recovered from crisis mode.¹⁴ Here, we report outcomes of patients hospitalized with COVID-19 through one year since the first case, focusing on the differences observed between the spring and the winter surges.

METHODS:

76 Study Population

We retrospectively reviewed all adult patients admitted to Montefiore Medical Center with a real
time reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) assay positive for COVID-19

between March 1, 2020 and February 28, 2021. We divided this timeframe in four 3-month

seasons based on northern hemisphere calendar: spring (March 1, 2020 to May 31, 2020),

summer (June 1, 2020 to August 30, 2020), fall (September 1, 2020 to November 30, 2020), and

winter (December 1, 2020 to February 28, 2021).

Data Collection

Medical data including demographic, clinical, and laboratory variables were extracted from the electronic medical record system. The primary outcome was 30-day in-hospital mortality.

Statistical Analysis

Continuous variables are displayed as mean \pm standard deviation or median [25-75%]

interquartile range] and compared with the Student's t-test, or Wilcoxon ranks-sum, as

appropriate. Categorical data are presented as percent and compared by the chi-squared test. We

estimated the cumulative incidence of the primary endpoint in-hospital mortality for each season,

treating hospital discharge as a competing event.¹⁵ To avoid any bias due to differential follow-

up length, we censored the follow-up time at 30 days after the admission.

A multivariable competing risk proportional hazard models was used to estimate the sub-

distribution hazard ratios¹⁶¹⁷ for time to in-hospital death. The covariates in the multivariable

analyses included factors present in > 90% of our dataset, known to be associated with in-

hospital COVID-19 mortality based on prior literature^{6 18 19}, or with a univariate association with

in-hospital mortality (p < 0.05) and a clinical (relative difference >5%) difference between

survivors and non survivors (Supplemental Table 1). These variables included: age, sex, body

mass index (BMI), vital signs at presentation (temperature, systolic and diastolic blood pressure, Page 7 of 41

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2		
3 4	102	heart rate, respiratory rate, pulse oxygen saturation), platelet count, white cell count, potassium,
5 6	103	bicarbonate, creatinine, glucose, alanine transaminase, aspartate transaminase, history of
/ 8 9	104	hypertension, dyslipidemia, chronic kidney disease (CKD), heart failure, coronary artery disease,
) 10 11	105	asthma/chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, diabetes mellitus and statin use. Additionally,
12 13	106	lactic acid level and percent of hospital bed saturation were forced into the model as marker of
14 15 16	107	illness severity and level of hospital stress, respectively.
17 18 10	108	
20 21	109	Then we focused on examining the difference in in-hospital death between patients admitted in
22 23	110	the spring and in the winter, as they represented the two largest and most temporal distant waves
24 25	111	of the COVID-19 pandemic occurring before and after public health polices, specific therapeutic
26 27 28	112	approaches and hospital management changes had been implemented. Selection method for
28 29 30 31 32	113	covariates is presented in the Supplemental Material and Supplemental Table 2.
	114	The proportionality assumption was examined ²⁰ and no violation was identified. A two-sided
33 34 35	115	p<0.05 was considered statistically significant.
36 37	116	
38 39	117	Propensity Score Analysis
40 41	118	To fully control the potential differences in patient population and hospital stress between spring
42 43 44	119	and winter COVID-19 patients, we also used propensity score (PS) matching to compare the 30-
45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53	120	day in-hospital mortality between spring and winter admissions. The same covariates used for
	121	the multivariable competing risk regression were used for PS matching. PS matching was carried
	122	out through a 1:1 greedy matching algorithm, with a caliper width of 0.1 SD. We then stratified
	123	on matched pair in the competing risk regression model. ^{21 22} Because one-to-one matching led to
54 55	124	a reduction in sample size, we used this analysis as a sensitivity analysis.
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3 4	125	All statistical analyses was performed with SPSS (IBM Corp, ver. 25, Armonk, NY) and the R	
5 6	126	packages cmprsk and crrSC (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, ver 3.5)	
7 8	127		
9 10 11	128	Patient and Public Involvement	
12 13	129	Given the retrospective nature of our analysis, it was not appropriate or possible to involve	
14 15	130	patients or the public in the design, or conduct, or reporting, or dissemination plans of our	
16 17 18	131	research.	
19 20	132		
21 22	133	RESULTS	
23 24 25	134	7,390 COVID-19 positive adult patients were admitted between March 1, 2020 and February 23	8,
25 26 27	135	2021 (Figure 1). 4,495 patients were admitted during the spring, 264 during the summer, 377	
28 29	136	during the fall, and 2,254 during the winter.	
30 31 22	137	On April 8, 2020, peak of the spring season, the total numbers of simultaneously adult patients	
32 33 34	138	admitted to our hospital (including those admitted to emergency adult wards at our children's	
35 36	139	hospital ²³) was 1,762 (118% of nominal bed capacity); 1,201 of them (68.2%) were COVID-19	ł
37 38	140	patients. On February 8, 2021, peak of winter season, 1,512 patients (101% of nominal bed	
39 40 41	141	capacity) were admitted to our hospital and 393 of them (26.0%) were COVID-19 patients.	
42 43	142	(Figure 1). Following cancellation of elective procedures, bed occupancy decreased to 70% by	
44 45	143	the end of the spring season and remained at 90% until the beginning of the winter season, whe	n
46 47 48	144	the second wave occurred in December 2020. Unadjusted mortality for patient admitted at the	
49 50	145	beginning of spring, end of spring, beginning of winter, and end of winter was 28%, 8%, 14%,	
51 52	146	and 13%, respectively (Figure 2).	
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Patient Population Demographics, past medical history, vital signs at arrivals are presented in Table 1. Initial laboratory blood tests are presented in **Supplemental Table 3.** Overall, median age was 66 (55 – 77) years, 3,835 (51.9%) patients were male, 5,519 (74.2%) were of Black race and/or Hispanic ethnicity. Median age ranged from 63 years (fall) to 67 years (spring). Sex distribution was similar throughout the year. Summer and fall patients had the lowest and the highest BMI: 26.7 and 28.6 kg/m², respectively. **Pharmacotherapy** Changes in pharmacological approach is presented in Supplemental Table 4 and Figure 3. Spring patients were more likely to receive hydroxychloroquine, azithromycin and other antibiotics. The use of Remdesivir substantially increased throughout the year (from less than 2% during spring to almost 70% by the end of the winter). Steroids prescription (from 33% during

spring to almost 70% in February 2021), therapeutic anticoagulation therapy, as well as use of

statins, angiotensin converting inhibitors (ACE-I), or angiotensin receptor blockers (ARBs) alsoincreased.

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Death, Intubation, and Length of Stay

Over the course of a year, 1,437 (19.4%) died while hospitalized. Patients who died were older,
had more comorbidities, and were more acutely ill consistent within prior reports on risk factors
for death in COVID-19⁵⁶ (Supplemental Table 1). Average unadjusted monthly mortality is
presented in Figure 2. 30-day in-hospital mortality (Figure 4A) was 25.0% for the spring
patients, 11.0% for summer patients, 6.9% for fall patients, and 11.4% for winter patients

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171	(p<0.001). On average, spring patients died 6.4 $(3.2 - 12.9)$ days after the arrival to the
172	emergency department, summer patients 7.2 $(3.0 - 15.7)$ days after the arrival, fall patients 13.4
173	(8.7 - 21.6) days after arrival, and winter patients 13.3 (6.8 - 20.7) days after the arrival
174	(p<0.001). Frequency of invasive ventilatory support was higher during the spring with 892
175	patients (19.4%) intubated, versus 27 (10.2%) in the summer, 36 (9.5%) during fall, and 268
176	(11.9%) in the winter, p<0.001. Median time from arrival-to-intubation was 0.7 (0.1 - 4.1) days
177	for spring patients, 0.6 (0.1 - 8.1) days for summer patients, 2.2 (0.1 – 7.3) days for fall patients,
178	and 2.8 $(0.3 - 7.0)$ days for winter patients, p<0.001. Median length of stay was 6.1 $(3.5 - 11.1)$
179	days during spring, 5.1 (2.7 – 10.1) days during summer, 5.0 (3.0 – 10.1) days during fall, and
180	6.3 (3.8 – 12.0) days during winter, p<0.001.
181	
182	Bed Saturation and Mortality
183	We defined bed saturation the percentage of bed occupancy calculated from the ratio between the
184	number of admitted patients over the nominal bed capacity of our institution (1,491).
185	In the multivariable competing risk proportional hazard model of the entire cohort, percent of
186	bed occupancy was associated with increased 30-day in-hospital mortality (HR 1.007, CI: 1.001,
187	1.013, p=0.004); i.e mortality increase by 0.7 % for each 1% increase of bed occupancy.
188	Consistent results were observed per level increase in bed occupancy quartile, (HR 1.086 [1.026
189	-1.148], P-value for linear trend = 0.004). Results of the competing risk regression analysis are
190	presented in the Table 2.
191	
192	Spring vs Winter Mortality Comparison and Propensity Matched Analysis

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In the multivariable competing risk proportional hazard model comparing spring and winter season, 30-day in-hospital mortality was lower in winter (HR 0.520, CI 0.448-0.604, p<0.001) when compared to spring. After PS caliper matching, there were 1,722 matched pairs. Spring and winter patients had similar distribution of PS (Supplemental Figure 1) and standardized average difference among covariates was greatly reduced. PS analysis showed a significant reduction of in-hospital mortality during winter (HR 0.580 CI: 0.507-0.663, p<0.001) confirming what we observed in the multivariable adjusted analysis (Figure 4B). DISCUSSION We examined inpatient mortality from COVID-19 over the course of a one-year pandemic at our hospital system in New York City. Our principal findings are as follows: First, we observed a substantial reduction of in-hospital mortality coinciding with multiple pandemic related public health measures focusing on hospital resource management – and preceding comprehensive changes in pharmacotherapy - towards the end of the first surge. Second, we describe - for the first time - hospital bed occupancy as an independent risk factor for inpatient mortality from COVID-19.

210 Public Health Measures in Response to COVID-19

After declaring a state of disaster emergency (March 7, 2020), New York State introduced
different measures to limit the spread of the disease, including public schools closure (March 16,
2020), limitation of indoor dining (March 17, 2020), stay-home order for non-essential workers
(March 22, 2020), mandatory face coverings in public (April 15, 2020), and night subway
closure (April 30, 2020)²⁴. Despite these measures to limit the diffusion of the disease and a

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216	generalized reduction of movements around New York City (as evidenced by a more than 90%
217	reduction of subway ridership compared to 2019) ²⁵ , more than 30% of Bronx residents were
218	found to have positive antibodies (and thus possibly temporary immunity) against SARS-CoV-2
219	in August 2020. ²⁶
220	Specifically relevant to hospital operations, executive order no. 202.5 (March 16, 2020) ²⁷
221	allowed healthcare providers not licensed or registered in New York State to temporarily work in
222	the State, and executive order no. 202.10 (March 22, 2020) ²⁷ suspended elective operations.
223	These executive orders were associated with a dramatic drop in non-COVID-19 admissions at
224	our institution beginning March 16, 2020. (Figure 1). On March 26, 2020 New York State
225	Governor Cuomo additionally mandated all hospitals to increase their bed capacity by 50% to
226	accommodate the surge of COVID-19 patients. ²⁷ Despite this order, the actual bed occupancy at
227	our institution (while accommodating all COVID-19 patients presenting to our hospitals)
228	remained below the usual operating capacity until December 2020.
229	Notably, COVID-19 mortality remained stable throughout the summer and fall 2020 with low
230	case counts and increased utilization of steroids, anticoagulation, and remdesivir. Although
231	randomized controlled trials have shown morbidity benefits with the use of remdesevir ⁷ and
232	mortality reduction with steroids ⁸ , the magnitude of these effects cannot explain the more than
233	50% reduction in mortality we observed. Furthermore, pharmacotherapy, with the exception of
234	hydroxychloroquine elimination, did not materially change within the spring season, by the end
235	of which mortality was already decreased. Steroid, remdesivir, and therapeutic anticoagulation
236	were used in 10-20% of patients by May 2020, but they reached 30-70% only in the winter
237	season. Despite that, unadjusted mortality began to increase again in December 2020 during the

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second wave. Of note, bed occupancy also increased at that time and proved to be an
independent risk factor for COVID-19 mortality in our cohort of nearly 8,000 patients.

241 Change in Therapeutic Approach

242 The initial widespread ($\geq 2/3$ of first spring patients) use of hydroxychloroquine, an agent eventually proven to be ineffective²⁸ to treat COVID-19, probably represents the most obvious 243 244 pandemic-associated deviation from the usual multiphase clinical trial standards of therapeutic 245 paradigm development. Only 8 of 2,254 patients received hydroxychloroquine during the winter 246 wave. Similarly, we observed a reduction in the use of azithromycin and other antibiotics, the 247 latter possibly reflecting a more careful assessment of the need to treat superimposed bacterial infections during the second wave. Steroid therapy^{8 29} and therapeutic anticoagulation⁹ were 248 249 implemented in the majority of patients during the winter after the knowledge on the likely 250 disease modulating inflammatory proprieties and pro-thrombotic effect of COVID-19 had been recognized³⁰ and, in the case of steroids, a therapeutic effect had been proven⁸. Remdesivir, an 251 252 inhibitor of the viral RNA-dependent RNA polymerase that showed shortening of recovery time 253 in hospitalized patients with COVID-19⁷, received emergency FDA approval on October 254 22nd,2020³¹ and was administered to almost half of the admitted patients during the winter. If 255 initial concerns of possible interactions between ACE-I or ARBs and SARS-CoV-2 32 led to a 256 possible underutilization or discontinuation of these drugs during the spring, we observed a 257 significant increase in their use during the following months, after no increased risks were 258 reported. 33 34

Similarly, after several reports showed a possible protective effect associated with the use of
statins^{35 36}, their utilization markedly increased during the winter.

Lastly, after the spring wave provided anecdotal evidence for early proning in COVID-19 pneumonia, an approach strongly favoring noninvasive ventilation and avoiding intubation was developed to address respiratory distress in COVID-19; more data about such an approach has since accumulated. ^{10 37} The cumulative effect of these therapeutic changes, in combination with a better preparedness to respond to a pandemic, can be estimate from the different mortality between the first surge (spring) and the second surge (winter). After matching the two groups for demographic and clinical variables, as well as for elements indicative of hospital distress (bed occupancy), a significant reduction of mortality was observed during the winter trimester.

270 Change in Hospital Stress Load

At the peak of the pandemic, the hospital saturation reached the 118% of the nominal bed capacity and COVID-19 patients accounted for 68.2% of all admitted patients. This increase in acutely ill patients created significant excess demand on the rest of the hospital infrastructure best characterized by the surge in the need for intensive care unit (ICU) beds and transformation of other hospital areas to ICUs.^{14 23} Despite increased patient load, the number of standard ICU beds, as well as laboratories, diagnostic equipment, and available personnel, remained the same as before the pandemic. This unmatched patient overload resulted in a 0.7 % mortality increase for each 1% increment in hospital bed saturation. In light of these results, strategies to minimize the bed occupancy for non-Covid-19 patients or non-life-saving admission should be adopted to diverge resources to improve the outcome of admitted Covid-19 patients.

282 Limitations

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Our study has the shortcomings of a retrospective investigation, but there are some very specific aspects limiting the interpretation of our results. First, it is difficult to assess the true effects of pharmacotherapy given the dynamic changes in indications, doses, and usage that happened over the course of the year. Regardless, we believe the propensity-matched comparison between the spring and the winter waves provides compelling evidence for the validity of our principal observation of inpatient COVID-19 mortality reduction disproportionate to advances in pharmacotherapy. We chose total bed occupancy as a metric for hospital stress assuming that other resources per bed remained static. Notably, the ratio of COVID-19 to non-COVID-19 patients, ICU bed saturation, and staff shortages are unaccounted for in this model. Regrettably, an in-depth analysis of these metrics is beyond our ability in this retrospective pandemic analysis with disaster elements. Additionally, a significant number of patients received ICU-level-of-care interventions (mechanical ventilatory support, dialysis, vasopressors titration) on regular floors; therefore, the concept of ICU bed saturation might have been not truly representative of the burden. However, we feel our data is sufficiently strong to support the notion that bed capacity expansion alone is not the answer. Rather, a smaller number of beds with higher staffing accomplished by drastic reductions in all non-emergent procedures and activities is likely a better approach. Although offering fewer beds in pandemic situation appears initially quite counterintuitive, in practice we observed that mortality began to decrease once beds and resources were allocated specifically to COVID-19 patients by executive orders 202.5 and 202.10; and most importantly that bed occupancy never exceeded 100% once hospital operations focused on the COVID-19

pandemic only. It is conceivable that an uptrend in mortality observed late in the pandemic with
 established treatment paradigms could be due to new viral strains or a sicker patient population.

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306 Although we are unable to provide detailed strain analysis for our study population, a meaningful 307 numbers of new (and possibly more virulent) strains were not yet observed in in the Bronx, 308 where our study was conducted.³⁸ The small sample size of patients in summer and fall does not 309 allow meaningful propensity matched comparisons, and when comparing summer, fall, and 310 winter populations, there do not appear to be clinically meaningful differences. Lastly, single-311 patient data on vaccination status were not available. At the conclusion of the study, only 13.8% 312 of the population of New York State received at least one dose and 7.4% received two doses³⁹. 313 Given the heterogeneous distribution of vaccination within the state (and the city of New York), 314 it is impossible to meaningfully account for these parameters. 315 316 **CONCLUSIONS** 317 Inpatient mortality from COVID-19 decreased to a degree disproportionate to advances in 318 disease specific therapeutics. Increased bed occupancy was associated to a higher in-hospital 319 mortality. Implementation of non-pharmacological approaches and other seasonal variations 320 might also had a role in the mortality reduction. Early reduction in epicenter hospital bed 321 occupancy to accommodate acutely ill and resource-intensive patients should be a critical 322 component in the strategic planning for future pandemics. 323 324
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325 **DECLARATIONS**

- 326 Ethics approval and consent to participate
- 327 The Office of Human Research Affairs at Albert Einstein College of Medicine approved this
- 328 study (# 2020-11308). Patient consent and HIPAA forms were waived by our IRB due to the
- 329 retrospective nature of our research.
- 330 Consent for publication
- 331 Non applicable.
- 332 Availability of data and materials
- 333 The datasets used and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding

er.

author on reasonable request.

2 335 Competing interests

336 No conflicts of interest exist.

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5	346	Design of the project: FC, XX, and UPJ.
7	347	Underlying data verified by FC, XX, and UPJ.
o 9 10 11	348 349	Acquisition, analysis, and interpretation of data: FC, XX, OS, RK, YAP, SRP, MJG, ADR, DS, and UPJ.
12	350	Statistical analysis: FC and XX.
13 14	351	Obtained funding: UPJ
15 16	352	Manuscript writing: FC, XX, and UPJ.
17 18 19	353 354	Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content: FC, XX, OS, RK, YAP, SRP, MJG, ADR, DS, and UPJ.
20 21	355	Supervision: UPJ
22 23	356	All the Authors reviewed the work and approved the final version.
24 25 26	357 358	FC and UPJ had full access to all the data in the study and take responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.
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	Spring (n=4495)	Spring (n=4495) Summer (n=264)		Winter (n=2254)	
30-Day hospital outcome					
Still admitted - no (%)	194 (4.3)	6 (2.3)	15 (4.0)	103 (4.6)	
Discharged alive - no (%)	3177 (70.7)	229 (86.7)	336 (89.1)	1893 (84.0)	
Dead in the hospital - no (%)	1124 (25.0)	29 (11.0)	26 (6.9)	258 (11.4)	
Demographics					
Age (IQR) – yr	66 (55 - 77)	66 (50 - 76)	63 (50 - 73)	67 (56 - 77)	
Male sex - no (%)	2377 (52.9)	138 (52.3)	198 (52.5)	1122 (49.8)	
Black race and / or Hispanic ethnicity – no (%)	3345 (74.4)	219 (83.0)	286 (75.9)	1635 (74.2)	
Body Mass Index (IQR) - kg/m ²	28.4 (24.6 - 33)	27.6 (22.5 - 32.7)	28.6 (25 - 34.1)	28.2 (24.4 - 33.1)	
Hospital bed saturation (IQR) - %	97.4 (86.5 – 107.6)	81.7 (76.3 – 85.8)	87.6 (83.2 - 90.2)	95.3 (91.9 – 101.8)	
Past Medical History					
Hypertension - no (%)	3370 (75)	197 (74.6)	254 (67.4)	1713 (76)	
Sleep apnea - no (%)	521 (11.6)	28 (10.6)	47 (12.5)	270 (12)	
Hyperlipidemia - no (%)	2609 (58)	153 (58)	199 (52.8)	1380 (61.2)	
Atrial fibrillation - no (%)	449 (10)	30 (11.4)	35 (9.3)	267 (11.8)	
Chronic kidney disease - no (%)	1406 (31.3)	70 (26.5)	85 (22.5)	620 (27.5)	
Heart failure - no (%)	980 (21.8)	72 (27.3)	66 (17.5)	519 (23)	
Coronary artery disease - no (%)	1316 (29.3)	95 (36)	108 (28.6)	721 (32)	
Asthma/COPD - no (%)	1371 (30.5)	84 (31.8)	98 (26)	753 (33.4)	
Diabetes mellitus - no (%)	2522 (56.1)	148 (56.1)	187 (49.6)	1244 (55.2)	
Vitals at Presentation					
Temperature (IQR) - F	98.9 (98.2 - 100)	98.4 (97.8 - 98.9)	98.8 (98.1 - 99.9)	98.7 (98.1 - 99.8)	
SBP (IQR) - mmHg	131 (114 - 148)	132 (117 - 149)	/131 (117 - 147)	132 (117 - 148)	
DBP (IQR) - mmHg	75 (65 - 84)	77 (67 - 87)	74 (68 - 84)	75 (67 - 84)	
HR (IQR) – bpm	98 (85 - 112)	92.5 (76.3 - 105)	94 (80 - 107)	95 (82 - 107)	
Oxygen saturation (IQR) - %	95 (91 - 98)	98 (96 - 99)	96 (94 - 98)	96 (92 - 98)	
Respiratory Rate (IQR) - bpm	20 (18 - 22)	18 (17 - 20)	18 (18 - 20)	19 (18 - 22)	

COPD = Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; DBP = Diastolic blood pressure; HR = Heart

rate; IQR = Interquartile range; SBP = Systolic blood pressure.

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Table 2. Association with In-Hospital Mortalit	y (Regression models with competing risks)
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	Multivariable		
Variable	HR (95% CI) P-value		
Age - yr	1.046 (1.04 - 1.051)	< 0.001	
Male sex - yes/no	1.352 (1.187 - 1.54)	< 0.001	
Body mass index - kg/m2	1.022 (1.012 - 1.032)	< 0.001	
Temperature - F	1.071 (1.036 - 1.108)	< 0.001	
SBP - mmHg	0.994 (0.991 - 0.997)	< 0.001	
DBP - mmHg	0.996 (0.991 - 1.001)	0.14	
HR - bpm	1.003 (0.999 - 1.006)	0.11	
Oxygen saturation - %	0.967 (0.961 - 0.972)	< 0.001	
Respiratory rate - bpm	1.027 (1.019 - 1.035)	< 0.001	
White blood cell count - k/µL	1.008 (1.001 - 1.016)	0.02	
Glucose - mg/dL	1.001 (1 - 1.001)	0.001	
Aspartate aminotransferase - U/L	1 (1 - 1.001)	0.21	
Alanine aminotransferase - U/L	1 (0.999 - 1)	0.25	
Lactic acid – mmol/L	1.071 (1.036 - 1.107)	< 0.001	
Platelet count -k/µL	0.999 (0.998 - 0.999)	< 0.001	
Potassium – mEq/L	1.096 (1.028 - 1.168)	0.0052	
Bicarbonates – mEq/L	0.957 (0.944 - 0.971)	< 0.001	
Creatinine - mg/dL	1.023 (0.998 - 1.049)	0.069	
HTN - yes/no	1.008 (0.851 - 1.194)	0.93	
HLD - yes/no	1.196 (1.02 - 1.401)	0.027	
CKD - yes/no	1.263 (1.09 - 1.462)	0.002	
HF - yes/no	1.33 (1.146 - 1.543)	< 0.001	
COPD/Asthma - yes/no	0.948 (0.827 - 1.088)	0.45	
DM - yes/no	0.946 (0.819 - 1.093)	0.45	
CAD - yes/no	1.101 (0.955 - 1.271)	0.19	
Statin use - %	0.577 (0.501 - 0.664)	< 0.001	
Bed occupancy - %	1.007 (1.001 - 1.013)	0.004	

CAD = Coronary artery disease; CKD = Chronic kidney disease; COPD = Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; DBP = Diastolic blood pressure; DM= Diabetes mellitus; HLD = hyperlipidemia; HF = Heart failure; HR = Heart rate; HTN = Hypertension; SBP = Systolic blood pressure

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Simultaneously Admitted Patients

This graph includes the hospitalized patients and the admitted patients in the emergency

department waiting for a bed. A precipitous decline of non-COVID-19 admissions begins on

March 16, 2020 (vertical gray line) coinciding with gubernatorial health care associated

directives in the State of New York. The dotted red line indicates the nominal bed capacity of our

institution (1,491 beds).

Figure 2. Cumulative Monthly Admissions and Mortality

Cumulative monthly admissions (black line, left axis) and mortality (dotted red line, right axis) over the year.

Figure 3. Change in Therapies

Percent of patients receiving specific therapies over the year. Lezoni

Figure 4. Cumulative Incidences

30-day in-hospital mortality by seasons.





This graph includes the hospitalized patients and the admitted patients in the emergency department waiting for a bed. A precipitous decline of non-COVID-19 admissions begins on March 16, 2020 (vertical gray line) coinciding with gubernatorial health care associated directives in the State of New York. The dotted red line indicates the nominal bed capacity of our institution (1,491 beds).

85x62mm (300 x 300 DPI)

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88x88mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Supplemental Appendix

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Survivors (n=5953) **Non-survivors (n=1437)** p-value Sample Value Sample Value **Demographics** Age (IQR) - yr 5953 64 (52 - 75) 1437 73 (65 - 82) < 0.001 Male sex - no (%) 5953 2989 (50.2) 1437 846 (58.9) < 0.001 Black race and / or Hispanic 5953 1437 < 0.001 4472 (75.1) 1013 (70.5) ethnicity – no (%) Body Mass Index (IQR) - kg/m² 5679 28.4 (24.6 - 33.2) 1352 27.9 (23.8 - 32.6) < 0.001 Hospital bed saturation (IQR) -5953 99.3 (87.5 - 107.6) 94.1 (86.5 - 104.8) 1437 < 0.001 % **Past Medical History** Hypertension - no (%) 5953 4365 (73.3) 1437 1169 (81.4) < 0.001 Sleep apnea - no (%) 5953 688 (11.6) 1437 178 (12.4) 0.38 Hyperlipidemia - no (%) 5953 3366 (56.5) 1437 975 (67.8) < 0.001 Atrial fibrillation - no (%) 5953 557 (9.4) 1437 224 (15.6) < 0.001Chronic kidney disease - no (%) 5953 1559 (26.2) 1437 < 0.001 622 (43.3) Heart failure - no (%) 5953 1181 (19.8) 1437 456 (31.7) < 0.001 Coronary artery disease - no 5953 1653 (27.8) 1437 587 (40.8) < 0.001 (%) Asthma/COPD - no (%) 5953 1437 0.32 1842 (30.9) 464 (32.3) Diabetes mellitus - no (%) 5953 3168 (53.2) 1437 933 (64.9) < 0.001 Vitals at Presentation Temperature (IQR) - F 5926 99 (98 - 100) 1427 99 (98 - 100) 0.35 SBP (IQR) - mmHg 5932 132 (117 - 148) 1430 127 (107 - 146) < 0.001

Supplemental Table 1 - Comparison Survivors versus Non-survivors

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DBP (IQR) - mmHg	5926	76 (67 - 85)	1428	71 (60 - 81)	< 0.001
HR (IQR) – bpm	5927	96 (83 - 110)	1429	100 (85 - 114)	<0.001
Oxygen saturation (IQR) - %	5922	96 (93 - 98)	1430	92 (84 - 96)	< 0.001
Respiratory Rate (IQR) - bpm	5928	19 (18 - 21)	1428	22 (19 - 26)	< 0.001
Laboratory Markers		L	L		
Hemoglobin (IQR) - g/dL	5823	12.9 (11.4 - 14.1)	1408	12.6 (10.9 - 14.2)	0.006
Platelet count (IQR) -k/µL	5825	198 (137 - 264)	1408	172 (88 - 246)	< 0.001
White blood cell count (IQR) - k/uL	5823	6.9 (5.1 - 9.5)	1408	8.3 (6.0 - 11.9)	< 0.001
Absolute lymphocyte count (IQR) - $k/\mu L$	5880	1.1 (0.7 - 1.5)	1423	0.9 (0.6 - 1.2)	< 0.001
Sodium (IQR) – mEq/L	5879	137 (134 - 140)	1428	138 (134 - 143)	< 0.001
Potassium (IQR) – mEq/L	5845	4.2 (3.8 - 4.6)	1426	4.4 (4.0 - 5.0)	< 0.001
Chloride (IQR) – mEq/L	5864	100 (96 - 103)	1423	100 (95 - 104)	0.28
Bicarbonates (IQR) – mEq/L	5879	24 (21 - 27)	1428	22 (18 - 25)	< 0.001
Creatinine (IQR) - mg/dL	5876	1.0 (0.8 - 1.5)	1427	1.6 (1 - 2.9)	< 0.001
Glucose (IQR) - mg/dL	5879	126 (104 - 179)	1428	156 (121 - 236)	< 0.001
Aspartate aminotransferase (IOR) - U/L	5416	35 (24 - 55)	1312	52 (33 - 81)	< 0.001
Alanine aminotransferase (IQR) - U/L	5614	26 (16 - 42)	1376	28 (18 - 46)	< 0.001
Lactic acid (IQR) – mmol/L	5097	1.9 (1.4 - 2.6)	1347	2.6 (1.8 - 3.9)	< 0.001
Lactate dehydrogenase (IQR) - mmol/L	4017	384±219	926	518 (371 - 706)	< 0.001
Creatine Kinase (IQR) – U/L	4714	336 (253 - 454)	1218	777±2657	< 0.001
D-dimer (IQR) - µg/mL	3850	1.2 (0.7 - 2.5)	763	2.5 (1.3 - 6.9)	< 0.001
Procalcitonin (IQR) – ng/mL	2800	0.1 (0.1 - 0.3)	615	0.6 (0.2 - 2.4)	< 0.001
Troponin T* (IQR) - ng/mL	2365	0.01 (0.01 - 0.03)	302	0.03 (0.01 - 0.1)	< 0.001
Troponin I* (IQR) – ng/mL	2684	0.01 (0.01 - 0.02)	981	0.02 (0.01 - 0.08)	< 0.001

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Interleukin-6 (IQR) – pg/mL	1752	17 (6 - 40)	287	68 (26- 154)	< 0.001
Fibrinogen (IQR) – mg/dL	2478	570 (448 - 690)	460	621 (506 - 761)	< 0.001
Ferritin (IQR) – ng/mL	3395	521 (224 - 1112)	659	1021 (514 - 2161)	< 0.001

COPD = Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; DBP = Diastolic blood pressure; HR = Heart rate; IQR = Interquartile range; SBP = Systolic blood pressure. * Troponin T was available only until June 2020, Troponin I was available only after June 2020.

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Supplemental Methods

Covariate Selection Method for Multivariable Competing Risk Proportional Hazard Models for in-hospital Death between Patients Spring and Winter Patients

The covariates in the multivariable analyses included factors present in > 90% of our dataset, are known to be associated with in-hospital COVID-19 mortality based on prior literature or with a univariate association between admission season (exposure) or in-hospital mortality (outcome) (p<0.05) and a clinical (relative difference >5%) difference between the spring and winter patients (Supplemental Table 2). These variables included: age, sex, BMI, vital signs at presentation, white cell count, creatinine, glucose, alanine transaminase, history of hypertension, dyslipidemia, chronic kidney disease (CKD), heart failure, coronary artery disease, asthma/chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, diabetes mellitus and statin use. Also in this model, lactic acid level and percent of hospital bed saturation were forced into the model as marker of illness severity and level of hospital stress, respectively.

Supplemental Table 2 - Comparison Spring Vs Winter

	Spring (n=4495)		Winter (n=2254)		p- value
	Sample	Value	Sample	Value	
Demographics					
Age (IQR) - yr	4495	66 (55 - 77)	2254	67 (56 - 77)	0.051
Male sex - no (%)	4495	2377 (52.9)	2254	1122 (49.8)	0.016
Black race and / or Hispanic ethnicity – no (%)	4495	3345 (74.4)	2254	1635 (72.5)	0.098
Body Mass Index (IQR) - kg/m ²	4229	28.4 (24.6 - 33)	2194	28.2 (24.4 - 33.1)	0.433
Hospital bed saturation (IQR) - %	4495	97.4 (86.5 – 107.6	2254	95.3 (91.9 - 101.8)	< 0.001
Past Medical History	0				
Hypertension - no (%)	4495	3370 (75)	2254	1713 (76)	0.357
Sleep apnea - no (%)	4495	521 (11.6)	2254	270 (12)	0.640
Hyperlipidemia - no (%)	4495	2609 (58)	2254	1380 (61.2)	0.012
Atrial fibrillation - no (%)	4495	449 (10)	2254	267 (11.8)	0.019
Chronic kidney disease - no (%)	4495	1406 (31.3)	2254	620 (27.5)	0.001
Heart failure - no (%)	4495	980 (21.8)	2254	519 (23)	0.254
Coronary artery disease - no (%)	4495	1316 (29.3)	2254	721 (32)	0.022
Asthma/COPD - no (%)	4495	1371 (30.5)	2254	753 (33.4)	0.015
Diabetes mellitus - no (%)	4495	2522 (56.1)	2254	1244 (55.2)	0.475
Vitals at Presentation					
Temperature (IQR) - F	4463	98.9 (98.2 - 100)	2254	98.7 (98.1 - 99.8)	< 0.001
SBP (IQR) - mmHg	4469	131 (114 - 148)	2254	132 (117 - 148)	0.002
DBP (IQR) - mmHg	4465	75 (65 - 84)	2252	75 (67 - 84)	0.117
HR (IQR) – bpm	4467	98 (85 - 112)	2253	95 (82 - 107)	< 0.001

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Oxygen saturation (IQR) - %	4463	95 (91 - 98)	2253	96 (92 - 98)	< 0.001
Respiratory Rate (IQR) - bpm	4466	20 (18 - 22)	2254	19 (18 - 22)	< 0.001
Laboratory Markers					
Hemoglobin (IQR) - g/dL	4372	12.8 (11.2 - 14.1)	2228	12.9 (11.5 - 14.2)	0.030
Platelet count (IQR) -k/µL	4372	188 (116 - 260)	2228	196 (143 - 259)	< 0.001
White blood cell count (IQR) - $k/\mu L$	4372	7.5 (5.6 - 10.6)	2228	6.4 (4.7 - 8.8)	< 0.001
Absolute lymphocyte count (IQR) - κ/μL	4420	1 (0.7 - 1.4)	2246	1 (0.7 - 1.4)	0.062
Sodium (IQR) – mEq/L	4414	137 (134 - 141)	2253	137 (134 - 140)	< 0.001
Potassium (IQR) – mEq/L	4389	4.3 (3.9 - 4.8)	2243	4.1 (3.8 - 4.5)	< 0.001
Chloride (IQR) – mEq/L	4394	98 (95 - 103)	2253	101 (98 - 104)	< 0.001
Bicarbonates (IQR) – mEq/L	4414	24 (20 - 26)	2253	24 (21 - 27)	< 0.001
Creatinine (IQR) - mg/dL	4410	1.1 (0.8 - 2)	2253	1.1 (0.8 - 1.5)	< 0.001
Glucose (IQR) - mg/dL	4414	134 (108 - 197)	2253	126 (104 - 184)	< 0.001
Aspartate aminotransferase (IQR) - J/L	4045	40 (27 - 65)	2084	35 (24 - 55)	< 0.001
Alanine aminotransferase (IQR) - J/L	4206	27 (17 - 44)	2171	26 (17 - 44)	0.292
Lactic acid (IQR) – mmol/L	3981	2.1 (1.6 - 3)	1913	1.9 (1.4 - 2.5)	< 0.001
Lactate dehydrogenase (IQR) - mmol/L	2935	384 (285 - 535)	1563	341 (254 - 468)	< 0.001
Creatine Kinase (IQR) – U/L	3453	168 (83 - 401)	1957	126 (67 - 282)	< 0.001
D-dimer (IQR) - µg/mL	2204	1.8 (0.9 - 3.9)	1907	1.2 (0.7 - 2.3)	< 0.001
Procalcitonin (IQR) – ng/mL	1789	0.2 (0.1 - 0.9)	1252	0.1 (0.1 - 0.3)	< 0.001
Troponin T* (IQR) - ng/mL	0	NA	2106	0.01 (0.01 - 0.03)	NA
Γroponin I* (IQR) – ng/mL	3662	0.01 (0.01 - 0.03)	0	NA	NA
nterleukin-6 (IQR) – pg/mL	1056	34 (14 - 75)	710	11 (4 - 26)	< 0.001
Fibrinogen (IQR) – mg/dL	1552	624 (491 - 750)	1040	536 (434 - 652)	< 0.001

Ferritin (IQR) – ng/ml	Ĺ	1969	716 (335 - 1498)	1637	510 (230 - 1094)	< 0.00
COPD = Chronic obstru	uctive pulmonary	y disease; D	BP = Diastolic blood	pressure; H	R = Heart rate; IQR =	
Interquartile range; SBI	P = Systolic bloc	od pressure.	* Troponin T was ava	ilable only	until June 2020, Trop	onin I
was available only after	r June 2020.					
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Supplemental Table 3 - Initial Laboratory Blood Tests

	Spring (n=4495)	Summer (n=264)	Fall (n=377)	Winter (n=225
Hemoglobin (IQR) - g/dL	12.8 (11.2 - 14.1)	12.4 (10.7 - 13.9)	13 (11.6 - 14.3)	12.9 (11.5 - 14.2
Platelet count (IQR) - k/µL	188 (116 - 260)	228 (169 - 300)	200 (144 - 257)	196 (143 - 259
White blood cell count (IQR) - $k/\mu L$	7.5 (5.6 - 10.6)	8 (5.8 - 11)	6.6 (5.1 - 8.9)	6.4 (4.7 - 8.8)
Absolute lymphocyte count (IQR) - k/µL	1 (0.7 - 1.4)	1.2 (0.9 - 1.8)	1.1 (0.8 - 1.5)	1 (0.7 - 1.4)
Sodium (IQR) – mEq/L	137 (134 - 141)	138 (135 - 141)	137 (135 - 140)	137 (134 - 140
Potassium (IQR) – mEq/L	4.3 (3.9 - 4.8)	4.2 (3.8 - 4.6)	4 (3.8 - 4.4)	4.1 (3.8 - 4.5)
Chloride (IQR) – mEq/L	98 (95 - 103)	103 (100 - 105)	101 (99 - 104)	101 (98 - 104)
Bicarbonates (IQR) – mEq/L	24 (20 - 26)	24 (21 - 27)	25 (22 - 27)	24 (21 - 27)
Creatinine (IQR) - mg/dL	1.1 (0.8 - 2)	1 (0.8 - 1.5)	1 (0.8 - 1.3)	1.1 (0.8 - 1.5)
Glucose (IQR) - mg/dL	134 (108 - 197)	121 (100 - 171)	122 (102 - 173)	126 (104 - 184
Aspartate aminotransferase (IQR) - U/L	40 (27 - 65)	26 (20 - 38)	31 (21 - 47)	35 (24 - 55)
Alanine aminotransferase (IQR) - U/L	27 (17 - 44)	21 (14 - 32)	25 (16 - 41)	26 (17 - 44)
Lactic acid (IQR) – mmol/L	2.1 (1.6 - 3)	1.9 (1.4 - 2.7)	1.8 (1.3 - 2.5)	1.9 (1.4 - 2.5)
Lactate dehydrogenase (IQR) - mmol/L	384 (285 - 535)	254.5 (196 - 340)	300 (225 - 383)	341 (254 - 468
Creatine Kinase (IQR) - U/L	168 (83 - 401)	97 (57 - 176)	116 (60 - 213)	126 (67 - 282)
D-dimer (IQR) - µg/mL	1.8 (0.9 - 3.9)	1.1 (0.5 - 2.2)	0.8 (0.5 - 1.6)	1.2 (0.7 - 2.3)
Procalcitonin (IQR) – ng/mL	0.2 (0.1 - 0.9)	0.1 (0.1 - 0.4)	0.1 (0.1 - 0.2)	0.1 (0.1 - 0.3)
Troponin T* (IQR) - ng/mL	NA	0.01 (0.01 - 0.03)	0.01 (0.01 - 0.02)	0.01 (0.01 - 0.0
Troponin I* (IQR) – ng/mL	0.01 (0.01 - 0.03)	0.01 (0.01 - 0.01)	NA	NA
Interleukin-6 (IQR) – pg/mL	33.6 (13.8 - 75.2)	11.7 (3 - 43.1)	11 (4.7 - 22.2)	10.8 (4.3 - 25.6
Fibrinogen (IQR) – mg/dL	624 (491 - 750)	448 (370- 583)	540 (436 - 663)	535.5 (434 - 65

Ferritin (IQR) – ng/mL	716 (335 - 1498)	228 (90 - 562)	364 (166 - 785)	510 (230 - 109
IQR = Interquartile rar	ege. * Troponin T was av	vailable only until June 2	2020, Troponin I was av	vailable only after
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Supplemental Table 4 - Therapies Administered during the Admission

	Spring	Summer	Fall	Winter
	(n=4495)	(n=264)	(n=377)	(n=2254)
Hydroxychloroquine - no (%)	3007 (66.9)	1 (0.4)	2 (0.5)	8 (0.4)
Azithromycin - no (%)	1322 (29.4)	51 (19.3)	118 (31.3)	374 (16.6)
Other antibiotics - no (%)	3382 (75.2)	160 (60.6)	214 (56.8)	1082 (48)
Steroids - no (%)	1485 (33)	71 (26.9)	195 (51.7)	1462 (64.9)
Angiotensin-converting- enzyme Inhibitors - no (%)	318 (7.1)	36 (13.6)	51 (13.5)	269 (11.9)
Angiotensin II receptor blockers - no (%)	264 (5.9)	23 (8.7)	32 (8.5)	212 (9.4)
Statin - no (%)	1478 (32.9)	109 (41.3)	129 (34.2)	1002 (44.5)
Therapeutic anticoagulation - no (%)	1041/4496 (31.2)	76 (28.8)	98 (26.0)	772 (34.3)
Remdesivir* - no (%)	78 (1.7)	37 (14)	134 (35.5)	1224 (54.3)
Lopinavir/Ritonavir – no (%)	40 (0.9)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Ivermectin – no (%)	11 (0.2)	1 (0.4)	0 (0)	34 (1.5)

* 45 patients listed as remdesivir recipients in the spring season were part of a 1:1 double-blind, placebocontrolled study. Instead, all the patients in summer, fall, and winter seasons listed as remdesivir recipients received the actual medication.



Supplemental Figure 1 - Distribution of Propensity Score

AST = aspartate transaminase; BMI= body mass index; CAD= coronary artery disease; COPD = chronic
obstructive pulmonary disease; CKD = chronic kidney disease; DBP= diastolic blood pressure; DM = Diabetes
mellitus; HF= heart failure; HLD = hyperlipidemia; HNT = hypertension; HR = heart rate; SBP = systolic blood
pressure; WBC = white blood cell count

STROBE Statement—Checklist of items that should be included in reports of cohort studies

	Item No	Recommendation	Page No
Title and abstract	1	(a) Indicate the study's design with a commonly used term in the title or the	1
		abstract	
		(b) Provide in the abstract an informative and balanced summary of what was	2
		done and what was found	
Introduction			
Background/rationale	2	Explain the scientific background and rationale for the investigation being	4
		reported	
Objectives	3	State specific objectives, including any prespecified hypotheses	4
Methods			1
Study design	4	Present key elements of study design early in the paper	4-5
Setting	5	Describe the setting, locations, and relevant dates, including periods of	4-5
		recruitment, exposure, follow-up, and data collection	
Participants	6	(a) Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and methods of selection of	4-5
		participants. Describe methods of follow-up	
		(b) For matched studies, give matching criteria and number of exposed and	
		unexposed	
Variables	7	Clearly define all outcomes, exposures, predictors, potential confounders, and	5 Supp
		effect modifiers. Give diagnostic criteria, if applicable	Supp
Data sources/	8*	For each variable of interest, give sources of data and details of methods of	4-5
measurement		assessment (measurement). Describe comparability of assessment methods if	
		there is more than one group	12
Bias	9	Describe any efforts to address potential sources of bias	12-
Study size	10	Explain how the study size was arrived at	4-5
Quantitative variables	11	Explain how quantitative variables were handled in the analyses. If applicable,	4-5
		describe which groupings were chosen and why	
Statistical methods	12	(a) Describe all statistical methods, including those used to control for	5-6
		confounding	
		(b) Describe any methods used to examine subgroups and interactions	Supp
		(c) Explain how missing data were addressed	
		(d) If applicable, explain how loss to follow-up was addressed	
		(<u>e</u>) Describe any sensitivity analyses	
Results			
Participants	13*	(a) Report numbers of individuals at each stage of study—eg numbers potentially	6-7
		eligible, examined for eligibility, confirmed eligible, included in the study,	
		completing follow-up, and analysed	
		(b) Give reasons for non-participation at each stage	
		(c) Consider use of a flow diagram	
Descriptive data	14*	(a) Give characteristics of study participants (eg demographic, clinical, social)	6-9
		and information on exposures and potential confounders	
		(b) Indicate number of participants with missing data for each variable of interest	
		(c) Summarise follow-up time (eg, average and total amount)	
Outcome data	15*	Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures over time	8-9

Main results	16	(a) Give unadjusted estimates and, if applicable, confounder-adjusted estimates and their	
		precision (eg, 95% confidence interval). Make clear which confounders were adjusted for	
		and why they were included	
		(b) Report category boundaries when continuous variables were categorized	6-9
		(c) If relevant, consider translating estimates of relative risk into absolute risk for a	
		meaningful time period	
Other analyses	17	Report other analyses done-eg analyses of subgroups and interactions, and sensitivity	9
		analyses	
Discussion			
Key results	18	Summarise key results with reference to study objectives	9
Limitations	19	Discuss limitations of the study, taking into account sources of potential bias or imprecision.	12-
		Discuss both direction and magnitude of any potential bias	13
Interpretation	20	Give a cautious overall interpretation of results considering objectives, limitations,	9-11
		multiplicity of analyses, results from similar studies, and other relevant evidence	
Generalisability	21	Discuss the generalisability (external validity) of the study results	14
Other informati	on		
Funding	22	Give the source of funding and the role of the funders for the present study and, if	15
		applicable, for the original study on which the present article is based	

*Give information separately for exposed and unexposed groups.

Note: An Explanation and Elaboration article discusses each checklist item and gives methodological background and published examples of transparent reporting. The STROBE checklist is best used in conjunction with this article (freely available on the Web sites of PLoS Medicine at http://www.plosmedicine.org/, Annals of Internal Medicine at http://www.annals.org/, and Epidemiology at http://www.epidem.com/). Information on the STROBE Initiative is available at http://www.strobe-statement.org.

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